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ABSTRACT

The Inservice Teacher Education (ISTE) Concepts Study was designed to study the data needs in this area and to conceptualize the area in such a way that the Teacher Corps could guide its activities more effectively in light of the facts and opinions of the field. Report IV deals with the problems of creative authority and collaboration. Eight papers are presented, each giving a different perspective on the development of collaborative models. Sam J. Yarger describes a complex model for identifying populations and determining goals in relation to a variety of issues. James Boyer presents a model that can be used to sort out the varieties of inservice teacher education and its governance focusing on the need for multicultural education. Kenneth R. Howey presents an analysis of a teacher center developed by the Minneapolis Public Schools and the University of Minnesota to prepare teachers to operate in open classrooms. A group of papers deals with three aspects of social change which are becoming increasingly important to the creation of inservice teacher education programs: job sharing, current and pending legislation; and the problems generated by the extension of the school downward to include younger children. Papers representing the views of the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association regarding inservice teacher education are also presented. (JMF)

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REPORT IV

Creative Authority and Collaboration

Yarger • Boyer • Howey • Weil
Pais • Warnat • Bhaerman • Luke
Darland • Joyce • with Hill

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ISTE REPORT IV

Creative Authority and Collaboration

A Collection of Position Papers

Sam J. Yarger
Syracuse University

James Boyer
Kansas State University

Kenneth R. Howey
University of Minnesota

Marsha Weil
Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching

Ralph M. Pais
Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching

Winifred I. Warnat
Howard University

Robert D. Bhaerman
American Federation of Teachers

Robert Luke
National Education Association

David Darland
National Education Association

Bruce R. Joyce
Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching

with **William C. Hill**
University of Southern California

June 1976

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Funds were administered and interviews conducted by the Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers at:

University of Southern California	William C. Hill, Director
University of Nebraska, Omaha	Floyd T. Waterman, Director
Wayne State University	Barbara A. Vance, Director
Howard University	Donald W. Parker, Director
University of Georgia	Michael G. Baker, Director

The project was coordinated by:

Bruce R. Joyce	Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching
Lucy F. Peck	Hofstra University

The views presented are the responsibility of the project staff and are not necessarily the opinions of the funding agencies.

Project Monitors:

Shirley A. Steele	National Center for Education Statistics
Velma J. Robinson	Teacher Corps

Chief Administrators of the agencies:

Marie D. Eldridge	National Center for Education Statistics
William L. Smith	Teacher Corps

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PROJECT PERSONNEL

STANFORD CENTER FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN TEACHING

Bruce R. Joyce	Project Coordinator
Lucy F. Peck Hofstra University	Project Coordinator
Terry J. Rice	Coordinator of Editing
Marilyn R. Harper	Coordinator of Finances and Final Reports
Kathleen M. McNair	Data Analyst
Richard Diaz University of Southern California	Data Analyst
Pamela H. David	Data Analyst
Kenneth R. Howey University of Minnesota	Consultant
Sam J. Yarger Syracuse University	Consultant
Louis J. Rubin University of Illinois	Consultant
Elinore R. Brown	Typist
Colette R. Childs	Typist

PROJECT PERSONNEL

TEACHER CORPS RECRUITMENT AND TECHNICAL RESOURCE CENTERS

WESTERN CENTER

William C. Hill	Director
Joseph Romo	Associate Director
Ramona Gordon	Office Manager
Judy English	Typist
Roxie Bagley	Recruiter

MIDWESTERN CENTER

Floyd T. Waterman	Director
Thomas Dean	Associate Director
Edna Alexander	Administrative Assistant

GREAT LAKES CENTER

Barbara A. Vance	Director
Wilbert Bledsoe	Associate Director
Elentine Bonner	Office Manager
Caroline Wallace	Secretary/Bookkeeper
Ruth Peach	Secretary
Karen Crawford	Secretary

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Donald W. Parker	Director
Patricia Matthews	Associate Director
Shirley Jones	Chief Application Processor
Athea Rayo	Secretary
Carol Coy	Assistant
Marian Hankerson	Assistant

SOUTHEASTERN CENTER

Michael G. Baker	Director
Barbara Ogletree	Survey Coordinator
Roger Bryant	Technical Assistant
Linda Anderson	Secretary/Bookkeeper
Mary Davis	Secretary

STATES IN WHICH INTERVIEWS WERE CONDUCTED

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California
Colorado
Connecticut
Florida
Georgia
Hawaii
Indiana
Iowa
Kansas
Kentucky
Louisiana
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
Mississippi
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New Mexico
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Pennsylvania
South Carolina
Tennessee
Texas
Utah
Vermont
Virginia
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin

District of Columbia

HISTORY AND STRUCTURE OF THE ISTE PROJECT

In June of 1975, the National Center for Education Statistics, with the cooperation of the National Teacher Corps, made the decision to inaugurate a series of studies in inservice teacher education. The phase of the study which is reported in these monographs is that of conceptualization.

Three sources of data were consulted in order to build concepts about the structure of inservice teacher education. The first of these was the existing literature. The second source of data were the positions of experts about the nature of the primary issues involved in the reconceptualization of the area. The third source were the opinions of several categories of interested parties, including teachers, administrators of school districts, school board members, community members, congressional representatives, state department of education officials, and higher education administration and faculty, about the major issues involved in inservice teacher education and the alternative ways of approaching these issues.

There were two primary purposes of the study. The first was to determine the data needs in the area. This information is to be used as the base for a succession of studies to determine the facts about inservice teacher education, the alternative issues, and the alternative solutions to these issues. The second purpose of the study was to conceptualize the area in such a way that Teacher Corps could guide its activities more effectively in light of the facts and opinions of the field.

The inservice teacher education project was coordinated by Bruce Joyce of the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching and Lucy Peck of Hofstra University. The staffs of the five Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers arranged for the interviews, managed budgetary matters, developed small conferences in important areas of inservice education, and contributed to the editing and publishing of the present reports.

This monograph is one of a series of five reports on the conceptualizing phase of the study of inservice teacher education. Following is an outline of the monographs:

Report I: Issues to Face
Bruce R. Joyce, Kenneth R. Howey, Sam J. Yarger and the Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Center Directors

Report II: Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers
Bruce R. Joyce, Kathleen M. McNair, Richard Diaz, and Michael D. McKibbin
with Floyd T. Waterman and Michael G. Baker for the Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers

Report III: The Literature on Inservice Teacher Education: An Analytic Review
Alexander M. Nicholson and Bruce R. Joyce
with Donald W. Parker and Floyd T. Waterman for the Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers

Report IV: Creative Authority and Collaboration
A collection of position papers by Sam J. Yarger, James Boyer, Kenneth R. Howey, Marsha Weil, Ralph M. Pais, Winifred I. Warnat, Robert D. Bhaerman, Robert Luke, and David Darland
with introductions by Sam J. Yarger and Bruce R. Joyce
with William C. Hill for the Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers

Report V: Cultural Pluralism and Social Change
A collection of position papers by Richard M. Brandt, Richard P. Mesa, Marilyn Nelson, David D. Marsh, Louis J. Rubin, Margaret C. Ashworth, Elsa N. Brizzi and Henrietta V. Whiteman
with introductions by Bruce R. Joyce, Kenneth R. Howey, and James Boyer
with Barbara A. Vance for the Teacher Corps Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers

The first report is a relatively short summary of the data needs in inservice education and the major issues identified from the literature, the interviews, and the position papers. The second report contains the results of the interviews with more than one thousand teachers, school administrators, higher education administrators and faculty, and others concerned with policy making in the inservice area. An analysis of the literature in the field is described in the third report, while in the fourth and fifth reports, shortened versions of position papers in several major areas are presented. In the fourth report, the problems of collaboration are explored, and issues attendant to cultural pluralism and social change are examined in the fifth report.

INTRODUCTION

Report IV of the ISTE series deals with the problems of creative authority and collaboration. Each of the eight papers in this volume provides a relatively unique perspective on the development of collaborative models in the inservice teacher education area.

Yarger's paper describes a complex model for identifying populations and determining goals in relation to a variety of issues. The populations, goals, and issues are projected in relation to inservice teacher education delivery systems, or organizational types, of which Yarger describes a variety, ranging from independently constructed inservice programs to programs developed by professional organizations and built around schools and school districts, or generated by free partnerships or consortia. He also presents a typology of functionally-oriented teacher centers, whose programs range from facilitative ones, to advocacy, responsive, and functionally-specific or unique ones. Yarger's model should be the genesis of a common language for looking at the alternatives in the inservice teacher education area. His conceptualization should permit legislators and others interested in education to determine what they are attempting to do with respect to ISTE and, with continued work by scholars, it should be possible to refine the framework to enable us to map present practices and line up the resources around any given goal option.

James Boyer also presents a model which can be used to sort out the varieties of inservice teacher education and its governance. He focuses his model on the need for multicultural education, pointing out that the problems of a segregated society have left us with less cross-cultural capability than is desirable, and that the mere integration of schools does not increase that capability. Integration must be accompanied by training for teachers to help them cross cultural, racial, and sex lines more effectively. Boyer's paper places the issue of multiculturalism firmly in the mainstream of staff development, warning us, without exhortation, that inservice teacher education could become excessively conservative and fail to generate multicultural capabilities. He suggests we need to develop curriculums, school organizations, and staff development programs around concepts of cultural pluralism which focus simultaneously on pluralistic values and the problems of staff development.

Howey's paper is an analysis of a teacher center developed by the Minneapolis Public Schools and the University of Minnesota, which had as its objective the preparation of teachers to operate in "open" classrooms. Howey underlines the difference between past and present assumptions about inservice education: In the past, it was assumed that teachers would acquire a general body of knowledge and skills during preservice training, which they would be able to implement effectively once employed, and perfect for their specific environment through experience, increased responsibility, and inservice training. Now it is believed that neither preservice nor inservice training prepares the teacher for variations in geographic and social settings which may exist between school districts, among the schools of one district, or within the population of a single school. The public is calling for more school and program alternatives, as well as greater variation within each alternative. This requires of teachers distinctly different attitudes and skills from those in which they are normally trained and the ability to make the transition from one set of skills to another in shifting among environments. Howey describes the Minneapolis experiment of creating an inservice training center based on the latter rather than the former assumptions. His paper discusses the roles of the entities involved in creating the center, the problem of assessing needs and defining the role demands of a changing educational system, and the problem of reconciling system and individual needs.

The second group of papers in this volume, written by Marsha Weil, Ralph Pais, and Winifred Warnat, deals with three aspects of social change which are becoming increasingly important to the creation of inservice teacher education programs. Weil explores the concept of job-sharing. She discusses the various types of job-sharing and describes programs in which it has been employed successively. She then goes on to discuss the advantages of job-sharing and the special inservice needs it creates. Pais deals with the emergent legislative scene and its problems. He examines current ISTE legislation in three states and forecasts future legislative actions. Warnat examines the problems generated by the extension of the school downward to include younger children, especially those of age two to five years. Identifying the organizatio problems and the variety of personnel who will require training and retraining if the school extends downward, she raises some important issues and asks pertinent questions about the present state and future plans for early childhood education.

In the final two papers of Report IV, the two organizations who represe teachers discuss their views of inservice teacher education. Presenting the American Federation of Teachers' viewpoint, Robert Bhaerman discusses the problems of the inservice enterprise with respect to organization, content, and process. The AFT view stresses the importance of allowing teachers to determine their own needs, of organized teachers taking an active part in program development, and of school districts providing time and money for inservice teacher training. Although not satisfied with present inservice arrangements, the AFT feels improvements are underway and expresses the hope that school districts, higher education institutions, and organized teachers will learn to work in collaboration with each other to create teacher centers and design more beneficial ISTE programs. The National Education Association also feels that teachers should be given a much greater voice in the planning, organization, and evaluation of ISTE programs. In a paper jointly authored by NEA staff members and edited by Robert Luke and David Darland, issues such as self-improvement for teachers, use of practical experiences in training approaches, local, state, and federal enabling and funding legislation, continuing training throughout teachers' careers, and institutionalization of ISTE programs through negotiated contracts are discussed. The NEA paper also points out the areas in need of research and development which will transform what is into what should be in the field of education.

The papers in this volume, taken as a whole, emphasize that collaboration among a variety of entities is essential to the determination of the needs, substance, and process of inservice education, and that the reconciliation of system and personal needs has to be made in a comfortable and vigorous way. Simply to create democratic collaborative arrangements without providing methods for determining substance and social needs would undermine the potential of the collaborative process. The papers in Report IV raise the following questions and issues:

Yarger: Systematic models for clarifying the options in the inservice domain with respect to authority, collaboration, funding, determination of needs, and the development of delivery systems are essential.

Boyer: The varieties of inservice teacher education need to be generated within a social context that recognizes the multicultural nature of society.

Howey: Inservice education needs to be role-related, both in terms of the felt needs of the teacher and the generated needs of the system.

Weil: Contemporary concepts of the teaching method [illegible] the role of the teacher in completely different ways with respect to the problem of stretching the capabilities of individual human beings [illegible] enormously complex role of the teacher and to [illegible] personal fulfillment and professional development.

Pais: The problems of generating adequate general policies for inservice education include clarifying [illegible], creating authority, enabling collaborative [illegible] arrangements, providing for monitoring functions, sorting out the appropriate roles of the [illegible] and executive branches, and providing that state grant programs and guidelines be constructed in such a way that they are [illegible].

Warnat: The extension of the school downward [illegible] both with respect to retraining teachers and to those working [illegible] in existing day care centers into the [illegible].

Bhaerman: Teachers must be given more say in the design, [illegible] and carrying out of inservice programs, as well as the time and money to participate in training. Ideally, programs will be run by consortia of organized teachers, higher education institutions, and school districts.

Luke/Darland: Through particular types of [illegible] training should focus on self improvement for teachers, which is related to the improvement of education for children. Teachers and administrators, with college personnel serving as resource people, should work together to create ongoing programs which are institutionalized [illegible] and funded by the public, and researchers should develop [illegible] on which to base training.

The sum of these papers points out that inservice education cannot exist simply in terms of process, but rather that it must be considered in relation to social contexts and the role demands of individual teachers.

ISTE

REPORT IV • PART ONE

Contemporary Reform Efforts

DELIVERY OPTIONS, TEACHER CENTERS, MULTICULTURALISM

Yarger • Boyer • Howey

CONCEPTS OF REFORM OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Sam J. Yarger
Syracuse University

Any attempt to write an overview for three papers written at different times by different authors not in communication with one another runs the risk of a "forced synthesis." When this occurs, the reader is often introduced to a set of common concepts, and is disappointed as each paper does not build upon its predecessor. In order to avoid this letdown, no attempt will be made here to develop a nonexistent commonality in these three papers. Instead, this overview will present the areas common to the papers, and then reintroduce each contribution separately, focusing on its uniqueness.

Yarger's paper, a general planning model, will be presented first, followed by Boyer's paper, which focuses on a content area, and finally Howey's paper, which offers a specific example; a logical movement from the general to the specific. Although each paper offers more than this simplified hierarchy would suggest, their themes do allow for this type of organization.

The Yarger paper attempts to develop a generic planning model for inservice educators. It is neither bound in content nor is it situationally-specific. Rather, it attempts transcendence of those elements without devaluing their importance. The Boyer paper, on the other hand, focuses on a specific content area for inservice education--multi-cultural education. First, however, Boyer analyzes inservice education from a broad perspective, building a foundation for his specific thrust. Finally, the Howey paper details a specific example of a unique inservice approach. In his paper, the Minneapolis Public Schools/University of Minnesota Teacher Center is highlighted. Howey also builds a base from which to present the teacher center. It is in these foundational bases that a degree of commonality and overlap is evident.

All three authors make the point strongly and repeatedly that inservice education is in need of major reform. Although analysis of the reasons for inservice education's lack of productivity differ from paper to paper, there can be little doubt that each author promotes major, if not radical, change. Implicit in each author's view of change is the notion that inservice education has never been adequately conceptualized or defined. All three authors, then, in different ways, have attempted to conceptualize for the reader the meaning of the term "inservice education." Generally speaking, all three conceptualizations demand a narrower and more focused approach to the continuing development of professional educators than has existed in the past.

At a more subtle level, the three papers highlight, either explicitly or implicitly, the need to develop new systematic training models. Each paper, building on its conceptual base for inservice education, recognizes the need for definable, defensible, and explicit procedures for setting about the task of providing inservice education for a wide spectrum of educational personnel.

Finally, and this may well be a function of the times, each paper calls for some type of collaborative effort. Certainly, collaboration is implied within the concept of Boyer's paper (multi-cultural education). In Howey's paper, examples are given of new collaborative structures, while in Yarger's paper the issues discussed demand the involvement of differential constituencies. It appears that all three writers view collaboration as a necessary though not sufficient condition for inservice program development.

The Yarger paper, following a brief history of inservice education, presents a three-dimensional model for program development. The model includes population targets, goal types, and significant issues. Included with the model are formuli designed to help the reader understand the potential differential applications of the model. The result of model application would, then, be delivery options designed to meet the constraints of specific settings. Consequently, Yarger has included a conceptualization of delivery options by organizational and functional types. These options are an extension of earlier work by Schmieder and Yarger.

The Yarger paper concludes with four very different programmatic examples. In each case, an inservice program, in skeletal form, is presented in accordance with the characteristics of the exploratory model and analyzed in terms of the delivery options. Although the examples are, by necessity, simplified, they do add life to the model and take the reader beyond the purely conceptual arena.

The Boyer paper on inservice training in multi-cultural education deals first with the nature of inservice education, conceptualizes a contemporary approach, develops the concept of need for inservice education, and analyzes patterns of teacher education in general. Boyer then differentiates between preservice education and inservice education before attempting to relate the whole area to multi-cultural education.

The Boyer paper does an excellent job of tracing multi-cultural education from an historical perspective. It cleanly differentiates between compensatory education and the more contemporary multi-cultural approach, focusing on the need for the involvement of all children in multi-cultural education. He goes on to conceptualize multi-cultural education and points out how the concept can be used to raise fundamental questions about the way schools are organized and run. Finally, the paper succinctly shows how the "typical" teacher cannot be expected to possess the skills necessary to teach in a multi-cultural, pluralistic environment. Therein lies the specific need for this type of inservice programming. He concludes by making a strong argument for inservice education in general, and multi-cultural inservice education in particular.

The Howey paper focuses on the Minneapolis Public Schools/University of Minnesota Teacher Center, and its application to inservice training in general and inservice training for open classroom teachers in particular. He clearly spells out his perception of what inservice education is and what it is not. Howey then presents the teacher center within the context of focused training and collaboration. There is a notable emphasis on the reality of explicit school variations and alternative approaches to the instruction of children. He stresses the need for better articulation of options in both schools and teacher education programs and shows how the Minneapolis Public School/University of Minnesota Teacher Center has addressed this problem. Significant among the contributions of the Howey paper are the teacher center's unique three-tier governance system and the variety of differentiated personnel, especially in the community and clinical areas.

Finally, Howey describes the training program for open classroom teachers and details how this program, within the context of the center, has produced demonstrable benefits for both the school system and the university. The concept of institutional equilibrium within the dynamics of change is one of the most compelling points.

The three papers in this section can be read in tandem, or they can be read separately. Although a certain commonality and overlap do exist, each paper can stand on its own. Each suggests important concepts about teacher education in general, and inservice education in particular.

AN EXPLORATORY MODEL FOR PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT IN INSERVICE EDUCATION

Sam J. Yarger
Syracuse University

INTRODUCTION

The delivery of quality inservice programs to America's educational personnel, although troubled, probably doesn't lack for creative ideas and innovative mechanisms. The basic question asks why are the innovative, the unique, the responsive programs, so difficult to initiate and nearly impossible to maintain? Taking the position that a great deal of innovation is occurring and has occurred in inservice education, but has not found its way into the basic structures of American education, one must explore the reasons for this dilemma.

First, and probably most important, inservice program development appears to be the bastard child of public and higher education. No institutional structure will either claim or accept primary responsibility for this endeavor. School systems have continually taken the position that their primary responsibility is the education of children, and teacher education remains the responsibility of institutions of higher education. Institutions of higher education, on the other hand, while giving lip service to the importance of inservice program development, have clearly emphasized preservice teacher education. State departments of education, with few notable exceptions, have treated inservice education from a certification point of view, thus placing authority in the hands of teacher training programs at the universities and colleges.

The unwanted child called inservice education has suffered in the meantime. It has been fairly well documented that financial support for the continuing development of professional educators is practically nil, save the resources that educators themselves invest in their own education.(1) Intelligently developed programs are few and far between. Instead, we find poorly planned, ad hoc creations, often designed to meet bureaucratic needs rather than the educational needs of schools, teachers, and other personnel. Bluntly, the programs that are in existence tend to be poorly planned, nonsystemic, and unintegrated.

In spite of all of this, a perceptive visitor to many places in our country can find teaching centers, advisories and exchanges, learning centers, and other mechanisms that have developed quality programs in response to this deficit. They reflect not only commitment and interest, but also a great deal of creativity and substance. Consequently, the inservice problem revolves not only around the development of a process for creating new delivery systems, but also for saving, institutionalizing, and disseminating those creative devices that already exist.

Any effort to promote advancement in program development need not be made on the basis of criticizing previous efforts. Indeed, there is already too much of this. Rather, if one can demonstrate that needs have changed, and that there are new and better ways of making progress, a more viable basis for program development can be presented. Henry Ford did not have to show the irrelevance of the one-horse shay in order to sell automobiles. Rather, he simply had to demonstrate that advances in technology and the construction of new and better roads made his automobile a more convenient and efficient form of transportation. Interestingly, there probably exist today areas where the one-horse shay is better suited to travel than a modern car. That same principle can apply to programs for inservice education. It is not necessary to devalue traditional inservice programs, university courses, or the people who have promoted them, when in fact there are probably instances where traditional programming is most appropriate.

This paper will explore a model for arriving at a decision concerning the appropriateness of an inservice program. Subsequent to a brief history of inservice education, a conceptual model for program development, called "The Problem Box," will be presented. Delivery systems will be explored, and, finally, a series of examples will be presented.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

Beginning with the first teacher and the first student, the educational competence of the teacher has been the object of scrutiny, complaint, and regulation. Initially, the directors of inservice education were the town fathers. Upon the appointment of the schoolmaster or mistress, these public officials took pains to advise and direct the teacher regarding the values to be inculcated in the town children. This "inservicing" was primarily concerned with educational content rather than procedure. From that time until very recently, inservice education has emphasized either content or procedure with little attention given to any interaction which might be occurring.

A more formal type of inservice program began to appear around the mid-nineteenth century, in the form of "institutes" which "were designed to review and drill teachers in the elementary subjects...."(2) Such rudimentary programs were necessitated by a condition which Herman Richey refers to as "The tremendous but largely unfulfilled need for even modestly educated and professionally trained teachers."(3)

Although these institutes remained in recognizable form as a major approach to teacher education for almost a century, other forms began to take hold around 1880. As we entered into the era of public schools as we know them today, teachers themselves became more concerned about inservice education. In addition, the teachers' institutes were not keeping up with the more modern educational needs of teachers. Many participants found them to be boring and repetitive. Consequently, newer approaches to inservice education were beginning to appear and become popular.

Teachers' reading circles, university and normal school sponsored summer schools, and extension courses began to fill some of the void left by the increasingly irrelevant institutes. Reading circles were aimed at motivating teachers to continue their education through reading "books of literary merit," and discussing them with their colleagues. The formalized summer schools and extension courses provided the teacher with a more cosmopolitan view of education and educational concerns. They also provided the teacher with college credit. Even so, many teachers in the early part of the twentieth century did not possess a college degree or even a post high school diploma (a situation revisited by American education shortly after World War II).

From 1900 until approximately 1930 the major thrust of inservice programs was toward "filling gaps in college degree requirements."(4) Consequently, very little was done during this time to help teachers meet specific classroom related instructional problems. The emphasis was clearly on quantitative rather than qualitative standards. However, the 1930's brought a drastic change of focus in educational standards as it had brought on a drastic change in the economic standard of most Americans.

Inservice education took on a new emphasis and a whole new appearance during the twenty years spanning the Great Depression, World War II, and the Post-War years. During the early 1930's economic conditions were so bad and job opportunities so limited that students stayed in school whenever possible, even though the curriculum was not always vocationally relevant. As a result, educational reform was a very serious economic necessity. According to Ralph Tyler,

> The differentiating characteristics of inservice education during the period arose from the primary concern of developing curricula and educational procedures that would better serve youth under the conditions of the day. This involved new approaches to curriculum building, the identification of new content, the development of new instructional materials, the discovery of new teaching-learning procedures, and the education of teachers to understand and to conduct new programs effectively....(5)

While the reform involved educators from all levels of the field (university professors, state education specialists, school administrators, and teachers), most of the resultant programming provided for a molding rather than for a growth or expansion of the teacher. This occurred despite the fact that one of the major vehicles to come out of the studies and projects was the "Workshop," a somewhat teacher-centered approach which brought together teachers and curriculum specialists to develop instructional units, resource guides, and curriculum evaluation devices intended for use by schools across the nation. Although the intention of these workshops was to involve the classroom teacher more fully and on a wider scale in the development of educational programs, it is only in the recent past that we have reason to suspect that such is actually happening to a significant degree. Nevertheless, the workshop idea and the lessons it taught regarding constructive involvement of teachers in attacking real educational problems was an important step in the development of the inservice concept.

For the past twenty-five years, inservice education has been revisited by past concerns and thrusts while at the same time developing in new ways. Around 1950, the schools began to feel the strain of the post-war baby boom. The tremendous increase in school population required emergency measures, particularly in the staffing of classrooms. Many teachers were hired who did not possess a complete college education, much less the requirements for certification. Consequently, inservice education found its primary activity to be that of providing for completion of degree and certification requirements, at least until the early 1960's.

While the schools were still feeling the effects of the drastic increase in population, the launching of Sputnik threw American schools into another crisis. The Russian space activities brought heavy indictment from the public against the American educational system. Science and mathematics programs were widely criticized The result was the development of national curriculum projects for school science and the development of what has come to be known as the "New Math." These projects were generally centered at large universities across the nation and only minimally involved the classroom teacher. Inservice programs during most of the 1960's, therefore, were designed to assist teachers in developing the attitudes, skills, and understandings necessary to implement these packaged programs. Interestingly, these programs were typically called "Institutes."

Toward the latter half of the decade similar projects for English and the social studies were also launched but with considerably less enthusiasm and concentrated effort than was the case with science and mathematics. Nevertheless, most of the 1960's saw the professional development of teachers revert to a focus on molding teachers to fit a nation-wide curricula, a focus which dominated the field just thirty years earlier.

While credentialing and the standardization of curriculum seem to have been the major thrust of professional development programs since World War II, other ideas and emphases were developing as well. Some of these would begin to profoundly change inservice teacher education by the 1970's. Probably the most popular and yet controversial among these was (and is) the Teacher Center.

Teacher Centers are, however, only the tip of the iceberg. The term represents a virtual myriad of differential programs, ranging from the conventional through the innovative to the radical. There are also many other unique delivery systems for inservice programs. The important point is that during the very recent past, a great deal of attention has been paid to the continuing development of professional educators, especially teachers.

Not only has there been discontent from within the profession itself, but the 1960's also brought a new wave of criticism directed toward the educational establishment in America, charging that programs were irrelevant, that Johnny couldn't read, and even that the rising crime rate and the drug problem were somehow school related. Add all of this to the very tight job market (and therefore less teacher turnover), the continuing over-production of new teachers, and the economic uncertainties which pervade the land, and it is easy to understand why the continuing development of teachers has been placed in the center stage.

THE PROBLEM BOX: A MODEL

With the increased emphasis on the continuing development of professional educators, has come an increased recognition that, historically, our programs have tended to be uncoordinated and ad hoc in nature. Although in terms of fiscal commitment, inservice education has not been a high priority item, there is a strong likelihood that promising program proposals which demonstrate an articulation of the needs and an understanding of the problem will be highlighted in the short-run future. Thus far, there have been few if any attempts to develop planning models that would allow for an intelligent articulation of inservice education along several dimensions. The model presented in this paper attempts to begin to fill that void, hopefully leading toward the development of delivery systems for inservice education that are superior to those now in existence.

This model attempts to render a complex phenomenon more understandable. In a sense, it forced the author to simplify reality, thus reducing the complexity of the phenomenon to the level of understandability. One characteristic of models is that the total universe of possible variables simply cannot be accommodated. This suggests that as program developers attempt to utilize a model, there are likely to be factors entering into the decision-making process that go beyond the bounds of the model itself. Yet, models do offer a conceptual basis for program planning that can provide the intelligent and perceptive user with a form of guidance that is likely to result in superior programs.

Interestingly, the model's inability to deal with all variables

AN EXPLORATORY MODEL FOR PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT IN INSERVICE EDUCATION - THE PROBLEM BOX

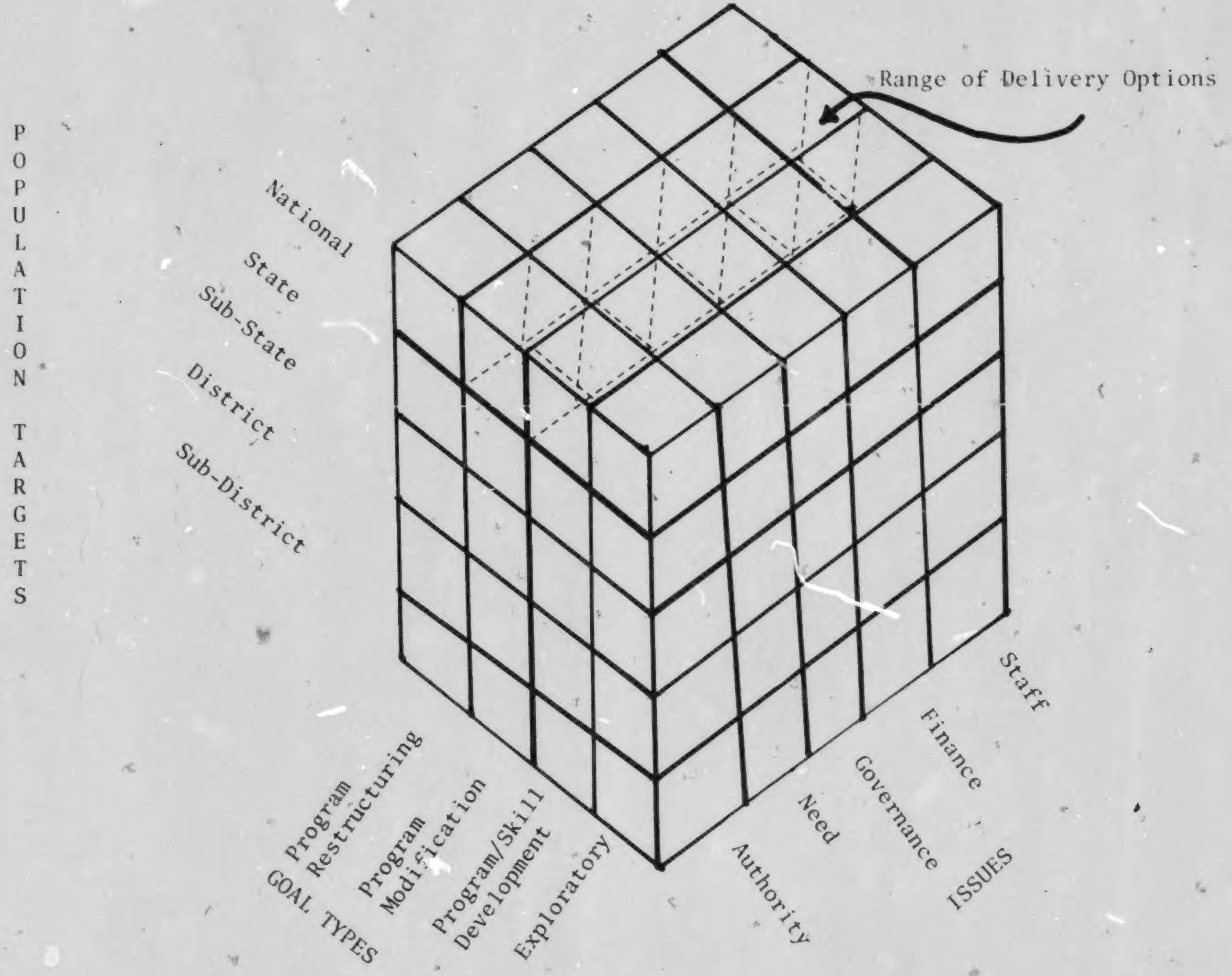

Range of Delivery Options
POPULATION TARGETS
National
State
Sub-State
District
Sub-District
GOAL TYPES
Program Restructuring
Program Modification
Program/Skill Development
Exploratory
ISSUES
Staff
Finance
Governance
Need
Authority

Figure I

often provides it with its greatest strength. If the model builder has wisely selected the characteristics and variables to be included, then logically, those characteristics deemed less important are blotted out. This operates to reduce circumstances where program developers become enmeshed in the minutia of unimportance, resulting in poorly conceived and ill-planned programs. The test, of course, becomes the usability of the model as an analytical planning device. If an application of its implied strategies, or in this case delivery systems, provides one with an understanding not previously possessed, then the model has value and probably ought to be used.

The model presented in this paper, referred to as "The Problem Box" is a three dimensional representation. The three matrices attempt to account for inservice target populations, goal types, and significant issues. The cubic space resulting from the interaction of the target population matrix and the goal-type matrix, including all of the issues, can be conceived of as representing delivery options. Figure I graphically presents this concept.

Target populations refer to the intended clientele for any inservice programs. In essence, they answer the question: Whom is the inservice program intended to affect? Target populations are hierarchical in nature and generally, though not always, relate to legitimate political boundaries. Goal types focus on the programmatic intent of the inservice program answering the question: What does the inservice program attempt to do? Goal types are general in nature, and they are not hierarchical. At this level of abstraction, goal types should be considered content free. Finally, every inservice program must entertain specific questions or considerations, referred to here as Issues. Issues are inherent in program conceptualization and development. The issues presented here are thought to be fairly all encompassing, though any given program will need to weigh them differentially. In some instances specific issues may be of such a minute dimension as to be considered no issue at all, while in other cases a single issue may emerge omnipotent. There is an implied interaction between the various issues.

The five target populations, four goal types, and five issue areas are defined as follows:

(1) Target Population

(a) National: A national target population is defined as including two or more states. Although usually a national effort will focus on more units than two, it need not, in fact typically will not, encompass all fifty states.

(b) State: A state target population reflects program development intended to impact more than a single sub-state political entity. Although usually a state effort will focus on more than two sub-state units, it need not, in fact typically will not, encompass the entire state.

(c) Sub-State: This generally refers to some discrete political entity within a state. It may be a county, or it may represent another type of configuration. It will, however, usually characterize the individual way the various states organize their educational systems.

(d) District: The school district is usually thought of as the smallest legal unit in public education. It represents the traditional educational interpretation of "grass roots" decision making, at least on the formal level.

(e) Sub-District: A sub-district is defined as anything below the school district level. It may be a single school, a part of a school, a group of teachers from one or more schools in the same district, or it may even be a single teacher.

(2) Goal Type

(a) Program Restructuring: Program restructuring refers to an inservice program that is intended to restructure the ongoing educational program and calls for major role changes on the part of educational personnel. It also has implications for organizational change.

(b) Program Modification: Less radical than the former, program modification nonetheless calls for substantive role changes on the part of educational personnel. There are usually few, if any, major organizational changes inherent in program modification.

(c) Program/Skill Development: The intent of this type of inservice program is to alter the educational program or to aid educational personnel in developing new skills or improving existing ones. It typically requires little if any alteration of either roles or organizational structure.

(d) Exploratory: In a sense an exploratory inservice program is "goalless." The program may be planned that way, that is, the intent may be to truly explore new approaches to the education of children, or it may simply represent a lack of conceptual base and/or poor planning. In any event the resultant program is flexible and open, with a great deal of variation in quality.

(3) Issues

(a) Authority: Authority relates to the legal base, if any, for the initiation and development of inservice programs. In essence, it answers the question, by whose/what authority does the program operate?

(b) Needs: Given that inservice programs are attempting to do something, this issue usually relates to some perceived need--institutional, personal, state, federal, or other. The needs issue focuses on either the explication of the need and need source, or the assessment of existing needs within either the community, the program clientele, or the institution. The issue is broader than a "needs assessment" of program clients. Program content is implied within the needs issue, as is program evaluation.

(c) Governance: Governance is a knotty and often misunderstood issue in program development. In this instance, it refers to the concerned constituencies, the relationship between the program, program administration, and the constituencies, as well as the level of constituency "acceptance" of the inservice program. The actual program governance mechanism itself may be policy-making or it may be information processing in nature.

(d) Finance: The finance issue is fairly simple--it deals with the questions: What is the source of program fiscal support? What is the magnitude and permanence of program fiscal support? And, What are the constraints associated with the program fiscal support? Incentives are usually thought of as a financial issue, at least when there is a cost factor involved.

(e) Staffing: Inasmuch as education is still basically a human endeavor, the staffing issue deals with the source of the inservice program personnel, the skills these personnel require, and the roles the program personnel are to fulfill.

These constitute the basic definitions that define the model. Delivery system options, to be presented later, constitute the bottom line of model application. Although any model can be used in many ways, for the sake of clarity, only one system will be explored in this paper.

APPLICATION OF THE MODEL

There are many ways that one could symbolically represent the functional use of this model. In this instance, a single formula will be presented. This should not be conceived of as an attempt to preclude other approaches to planning inservice delivery systems, but rather as a single approach, deemed most appropriate for purposes of explanation.

The process for utilizing the "Problem Box" can be symbolized by the formula:

$$D^{o} = f\left[AB\ (C')\right] - O_{v}$$

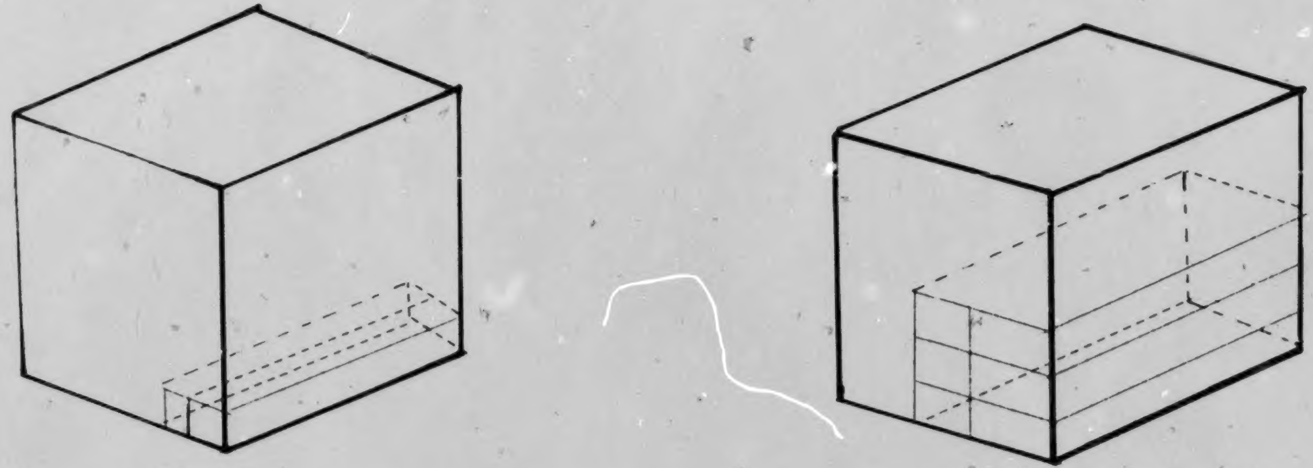
Then, delivery options are a function of population targets (A), in conjunction with goal types (B) times the issues factorially (C'), minus delivery option overlap. This suggests that there will be a range of delivery options (Figure I) rather than a single, best delivery system. Further, the implication is clear that program developers will have to perform the "factorial" function in order to ensure a consideration of the most appropriate delivery options.

One can easily extend the application of the model to include multiple population targets (A) and goal types (B). This, of course, will lead to a wider range of delivery options. It also implies a point of optimal program expansion. Beyond that point, the level of complexity and the potential number of delivery options may well become unworkable. When this occurs, one encounters a situation where the program is "attempting to make love to the world," a condition which unfortunately has occurred too frequently in the past. Symbolically, this would be represented by the formula:

$$D^{o} = f\left[A_{n}B_{n}\ (C')\right] - O_{v}$$

Figure II graphically presents the situation. Box A represents the addition of a single goal type, thus doubling the potential range of delivery options. It should be noted that the absolute number of delivery options would not be doubled, as the overlap in the delivery system options would have to be subtracted. Hence, the addition of a single goal type may well represent a workable condition for program development in inservice education. Box B, on the other hand, represents the addition of a single goal type and two additional population targets. At this point, the range of delivery options is six times greater (minus the overlap) than when a

THE IMPACT OF ADDITIONAL TARGET POPULATIONS AND GOAL TYPES ON THE RANGE OF DELIVERY OPTIONS



Box A
The addition of one Goal Type
doubles the Delivery Options.

Box B
The addition of one Goal Type and
two Target Populations increases the
range of Delivery Options six times.

Figure II

single population target and goal type were used. When one considers the factorial quality of the issues, it is likely that the range of delivery options, even accounting for the overlap, would be too cumbersome, and, therefore, unworkable.

It is the contention of this paper that inservice program developers who approach their task with a conceptual model such as this guiding the effort are going to be more successful. The resultant developmental plans will represent inservice programs that can be presented more coherently, assessed more easily, and, finally, more efficiently analyzed and evaluated.

Thus far, an attempt has been made to explain a very basic conceptual model for the development of delivery options in inservice education. The model attempts to account for different target populations, different goal types, and those issues deemed most crucial. There are, of course, many variables, particularly in the domain of issues, that have not been mentioned. Such variables might include time constraints, the nature of the institution(s) involved, the psychological relationships vis-a-vis program planners and developers, and others. The important point is that these are deemed to be situationally specific issues and constraints, and it is assumed that program planners would take them into account.

By now, hopefully, the reader is asking the question, what are the delivery options that might be included in all of those little boxes? Delivery options are the "raison d'être" in the initiation and development of an inservice program. The next section of this paper will explore that area.

DELIVERY OPTIONS

It is difficult to understand the virtual myriad of delivery options for inservice programs that exists today in American education. Educators, in the best tradition of our open society, have developed innumerable programs, each with its own label, most often designed to serve a specific situational need. Efforts to "get a handle" on the spectrum of inservice programs have been meager. The sheer number of different programs suggests that attempts to develop inservice education have not been lacking. Consequently, the time is at hand to emerge from this morass of ambiguity and contradictions, and to develop a systematic approach to understanding inservice education, thus providing the base for more intelligent program initiation and development.

One attempt to develop a systematic approach to understanding inservice education has been developed by Schmieder and Yarger in their study on teaching centers.(6) Yarger, Lebby, and Edwards have extended this work.(7) Briefly, a typology of teacher centers presents seven organizational structures and four functional types. For purposes of this paper, these concepts have been slightly altered to allow their application to inservice programs in general.

Seven descriptions of structures for inservice programs will be presented along with the four descriptions of functions that inservice programs can play. Although each structural as well as each functional description may imply characteristics of the other category, for analytical purposes they should be considered independently. The strengths and weaknesses of synthetic models mentioned earlier apply equally to these typologies. One further caution is appropriate. Although no inservice program will fit perfectly into either a single organizational style or functional type, one can usually isolate a "best fit." It is also possible to think in terms of primary and secondary organizational and functional types.

(1) Organizational Types

(a) The Independent Inservice Program: The independent inservice program often represents an attempt to bring the essence of British programming to American soil. The focus is usually on the direct concerns of teachers. Because there is no association with a formal educational institution, the red tape of the bureaucracy is severed and the program directors and implementers can respond directly to perceived client needs. Frequently, independent programs are administered and staffed by former (or current) teachers. Teachers become involved on a purely voluntary basis; thus the program has high teacher credibility. Financing is often tenuous. Although funds may come from "establishment" sources (e.g., USOE, NIE, foundations), a key element of the independent operation is that the resources come directly.

Consequently, an independent inservice program is not formally, officially, or administratively attached to any established institution, though there may be some formal and informal liaisons. The independent program is autonomous, accountable only to its own structure and clients.

(b) The Almost Independent Inservice Program: The almost independent inservice program shares many common features with the independent. There is usually an attempt to deal directly with the concerns of teachers, thus not addressing the "goals" of the institution. The emphasis is on "real world" problems, and programming typically relates to activities, skills, materials, and so on that are directly applicable to the classroom situation. The characteristic which differentiates it from an independent program is that it is officially part of an established institution (usually a school system or a university). Even though a formal institutional tie is evident, funding is quite often tenuous. It is frequently the strength and charisma of the personnel that provide the autonomy. As with the independent program, the almost independent inservice program attempts to be accountable to its constituency.

(c) The Professional Organization Inservice Program: Although rare, the impetus for the development of professional organization programs is clearly evident. In this instance, the inservice program is organized and operates in a framework of a professional organization. There may well be institutional support, but it is likely to be a result of the bargaining efforts of the organization and the institution. Professional organization funds may also be used to maintain and operate the program. There are two types: "negotiated" and "subject matter." The first will reflect the perceived needs of the constituent teachers as well as professional organization needs, while the subject area program usually emphasizes a particularly high priority classroom subject, e.g., reading. Policy may well be vested in the hands of a teacher committee, but will likely reflect professional as well as instructional issues.

(d) The Single Unit Inservice Program: The single unit inservice program is probably the most common type in America. It is characterized by its exclusive relationship to and administration by a single educational institution, usually a school system. This type of program may be organized and administered in a multitude of ways, but always with regard to a single political unit. External human resources may frequently be used, but always on a consultant basis. External financial resources are always institutionally administered. Accountability is usually to the administration of the institution, and the programming usually reflects approved institutional goals.

(e) The Free Partnership Inservice Program: This type of program represents the simplest form based on the concept of a consortium. Usually the partnership involves the school system and a university or college. It could, however, involve two school systems, two univeristies, or could even involve noneducational agencies. The important aspect is that it is a two-party relationship and as such is easier to initiate and maintain than a relationship involving three or more discrete institutions. In fact, it is entirely possible that one could find institutions involved in several two-party partnerships without attempting to establish a more wide-ranging multi-party relationship. The word "free" in this description refers to the fact that the partnership is entered into willingly, rather than being prescribed legislatively or politically. Structure, finance, and program will vary greatly, though in most cases there will be distinct evidence of attempts to accommodate the needs and goals of both institutional partners. This type of program often evolves from a single unit inservice program in which a good relationship develops between sponsoring unit and consultants from other nearby educational institutions.

(f) The Free Consortium Inservice Program: A free consortium is characterized by three or more institutions, usually geographically close to one another, willingly entering into an inservice program relationship. The organization, commitments, and policy considerations will frequently be more complex and formal than in a partnership. Financial commitments also become more complex, and external sources of support can frequently be isolated as a primary reason for the development of the consortium. Program development is likely to be more general, as the goals and constraints of each party of the consortium must be taken into account. The permanence of this type of inservice program is often related to the ability of member institutions and their constituencies to see merit in the program activities. "First phase" development usually takes much longer than with most other program types because of the need for trust building among a complex mix of participants. The long-range payoff and potential large-scale impact often make this worthwhile.

(g) Legislative/Political Inservice Program: This type of program is characterized by the fact that its organization and constituency are prescribed by legislative criteria or political influence. Often, but not always, the state department of education oversees the process. In a sense, it is a "forced" consortium. By virtue of this, participation by eligible institutions is likely to be quite varied. The programming is usually carried out by the prescribed organizing agent, with at least some sensitivity to constituent institutions. It is not unusual for a financial incentive to exist in an effort to entice eligible institutions to become involved. Although this type of inservice program is frequently organized with regard to county boundaries, the organization may range from subcounty to a total state model.

(2) Functional Types

The functional types presented here draw on the work of others. The facilitating inservice program was adopted directly from the work of Joyce and Weil while the advocacy and responsive programs were first presented in a paper by Harrihan et al.(8) In the case of the last two types, considerable liberty has been taken to extend and broaden the concept for purposes of this system. The writer assumes full responsibility for any corruption of Harrihan's original notion.

(a) The Facilitating Type Inservice Program: Joyce and Weil describe this type of program as the "informal English" variety, "one which exists much more in the hortatory literature than in real world exemplars. It's informal and almost unprogrammatic....it turns on the creation of an environment in which teachers explore curriculum materials to help each other think out approaches to teaching....such a (program) seeks to improve the colleagial activity of the teacher."(9) This type of inservice program purports to provide an atmosphere which will allow the teacher to explore new ideas and techniques, either through direct interaction with other teachers or by a "hands-on" experience with new curriculum materials. No specific program is offered, and professional growth is a function of the unique needs and initiatives of the individuals who voluntarily participate. Quite simply, it is intended to facilitate a teacher's personal and professional development. It serves a heuristic, colleagial, almost social, educational function.

(b) The Advocacy Type Inservice Program: An advocacy type inservice program is characterized by a particular philosophical or programmatic commitment. Although usually explicit, the advocacy may simply be the result of committed professionals with common beliefs joined together in the same programmatic effort. Advocacy programs may advocate such things as open education, competency-based education, differentiated staffing, multi-unit schools, and so on. The key element is that the inservice program has a visible "thrust" or commitment to a particular philosophy, orientation, or educational movement. This type of inservice program is usually limited to a single educational orientation, such as open education.

(c) The Responsive Type Inservice Program: American eucation appears to foster at least two kinds of responsive inservice programs. The first attempts to respond to the specific needs of the individual educators, while the second focuses on specified institutional needs. They are likely to exist in very different organizational structures. In both cases, however, there is an implied needs assessment, and a commitment to develop a program in accordance with mutually derived objectives. The inservice program promotes itself as not being philosophically imbedded, but rather designed to help a potential client better understand a problem and then to provide resources and/or training designed to solve that problem. Programming is usually diverse, with heavy reliance on external resources.

(d) The Functionally Unique Inservice Program: Some inservice programs are designed to serve rather limited, unique functions. These may include materials development, research, and/or field testing of available materials. In some cases an inservice program may have developed from a program that originally had a totally different purpose. For example, suppose an experimental classroom in a single school is set up to provide a service to a particular kind of child. As its popularity grows, teachers visit it with increasing regularity to see the materials, observe instructional techniques, and to solicit counsel from the teacher. In this case, the resulting inservice program is more directly child-centered than most. In fact, program personnel would likely have to make many changes in order to accommodate the new unique inservice function.

EXAMPLES OF DELIVERY OPTIONS

The inclusion of potential delivery systems provides us with all of the elements necessary to attempt some practical applications. Lest the writer be accused of attempting to promote a simple version of a very complex phenomenon, cautions are necessary. If, for example, one used only a single target population and a single goal type, the factorial nature of the issues would suggest as many as 120 delivery options. Accepting that some of the issues may be relatively unimportant, and adding to this the high likelihood of overlap in potential delivery options, there is a strong likelihood that the actual number of delivery options would be far less. This should, however, not be considered a criticism of the model, as in attempts to apply formal models one rarely finds an isomorphic relationship between the model and reality. Instead, the intent of the model is to present a conceptual base from which to initiate program planning.

Carrying this one step further, if one selected more than a single target population and/or goal type, and the model-real world relationship were isomorphic, then the number of delivery options would be very high. For example, Box B in Figure II suggests three target populations and two goal types. Logically, this would mean that there are six times the 120 delivery options suggested if single variables are chosen, thus as many as 720 potential delivery options, minus the overlap.

Variations will occur within any given delivery option as a function of situation specific phenomena. Therefore, it is possible that the number of delivery options is actually greater than an isomorphic relationship would suggest. It all depends on how one conceptualizes the problem. The important point is that planning and initiating inservice programs, taking into account many factors, is a highly complex task that requires a rational and intelligent application of a conceptual base.

It is with these cautions in mind that the following four examples are presented:

EXAMPLE I

Element	Description	Critical Delivery System Indicators
Target Population	Four school districts (sub-state) want to--	Consortium
Goal Type	Improve the reading instructional program within the existing curriculum using existing materials--(skill development)--	Advocacy
Issues		
● Authority	With board acceptance--	
● Need	After researching the problem through a teacher committee--	Responsive
● Governance	Within the already-existing inservice program structures in the four systems--	Consortium
● Finance	Using shared financial resources, which are limited, but not dependent on any external sources--	Free Consortium
● Staff	Using in-place instructional specialists, and a very limited amount of consultation	

PROGRAM ANALYSIS: Four school districts working together implies a sub-state consortium relationship, while the desire to improve the existing program suggests a skill development focus using an advocacy approach. The board acceptance of the program grants the authority, and the desire to use the teacher committee to research the problem suggests a needs assessment, or responsive approach. In this instance the advocacy of the ascribed content and the desire to be responsive to teacher needs do not contradict one another, but rather, should be viewed as complementary. The desire to use "hard" money within the boundaries of the already-existing inservice program structure will lead to a free consortium structure.

It appears that the program will operate as a free consortium serving a responsive function within some programmatic content constraints. The major issues will be in program governance and the sharing of resources between four autonomous institutions. The fact that the number of constituencies is likely to include only institutional members suggests that the program may get off to a faster start. The program does, however, trade off whatever benefits might accrue from involving a broader base of vested interest groups.

EXAMPLE II

Element	Description	Critical Delivery System Indicators
Target Population	Seven teachers from three different elementary schools want to (sub-district)--	
Goal Type	Open a store-front teaching center (skill development and/or exploratory)--	Independent
Issues		
• Authority	On their own--	Independent
• Need	To help teachers in any way that the teachers need help--	Responsive/ Facilitative
• Governance	Run by themselves--	Independent
• Finance	With donations, minimal fees, and whatever other help they can get--	Independent
• Staff	With the seven teachers and other volunteers doing the work	Independent

PROGRAM ANALYSIS: This will clearly be a teaching center-type operation that will be designed to operate independently. It will be designed to serve a facilitative and/or responsive function. The lack of a governance structure is not likely to be an issue, as participation will be voluntary, and those who become involved will do so because they are pleased with the program(s) and activities. The overriding issue will be financial, as there is no base from which to operate. Consequently, the permanence of the operation is likely to be questionable right from the start. The total freedom to "do its own thing" is the obvious benefit the program receives for its financial insecurity. If the inservice teaching center gains popularity leading to external support, then some of its cherished autonomy will be lost.

EXAMPLE III

Element	Description	Critical Delivery System Indicators
Target Population	A suburban elementary school (sub-district)--	Single Unit
Goal Type	Wants to implement a multi-unit school (program modification)--	Advocacy
Issues		
• Authority	On its own in a very subtle way--	Almost Independent
• Need	As a result of the initiative of the principal and the PTA executive committee--	Almost Independent
• Governance	With the support of the PTA--	Partnership
• Finance	With only the small amount of funds normally given to the school and the bits and pieces the PTA can raise	
• Staff	With their own staff	

PROGRAM ANALYSIS: In this case the almost independent structure takes precedence over either the single unit or the partnership structure, because the school is clearly accountable to the school district, which appears not to be involved. This could create programmatic problems as the inservice program develops. Also, even though there is a partnership, it is clearly informal, i.e., without authority to operate the program. The program will be an advocacy, as the principal and the PTA executive committee are pushing the idea. It seems that both the parents and the teachers remain to be convinced. This, too, will likely provide significant obstacles unless it is handled very carefully. Finally, the program will possess very limited resources, both material and human. In this instance, the commercial materials available for program support are not only likely to be too expensive, but are also likely to create a district administration reaction that would not be supportive.

This does not appear to be a healthy beginning for an inservice program. A reasonable prognosis would suggest that the most likely outcome will be a multi-unit school in form, but not in content. Back to the drawing board.

EXAMPLE IV

Element	Description	Critical Delivery System Indicators
Target Population	The inservice directors from three state departments of education (national)--	Legislative/ Political Consortium
Goal Type	Want to establish a network of different kinds of programs (undifferentiated)--	Responsive (institutionally)
Issues		
• Authority	At the directive of their respective state superintendents--	
• Need	Based upon a state-wide needs assessment program--	Responsive (institutionally)
• Governance	Set up to operate at the county school district level under state auspices--	Legislative/ Political Consortium
• Finance	With state funds as a base, but also with grants from both public and nonpublic granting agencies--	Legislative/ Political Consortium

Example IV (continued)

Element	Description	Critical Delivery System Indicators
• Staff	Utilizing both existing inservice personnel and new staff selected as a result of the needs assessment	

PROGRAM ANALYSIS: This is not really a program, but rather a structure for many different programs. It would be impossible to describe the content of any network organized at this level. If not legislative mandate, there certainly will be political influence operating as the network develops. This influence will lie with the authority generally vested in state departments of education. There is also likely to be a financial structure imposed that rewards involvement. Finally, a structure at this level tends to be super sensitive to political constituencies--thus such groups as teachers organizations, teacher education organizations, and formal parent groups are likely to be involved in the governance structure. Although this may lead to a higher level of acceptance, there will be a clear risk of compromise programs and wasted time.

Although structures such as this tend to be responsive, there is a long history of being responsive to institutional needs rather than individual client needs. Program developers will have to be very much aware of this tendency. Visibility will be high, as funded program visibility typically is, and this can be a liability as well as an asset. Ofttimes expectations are too high and unrealistic in relation to time constraints. If, however, a massive network such as this can survive, the promise for long-term payoff and more complete program impact is high.

These four examples were provided in an attempt to cover a wide variety of potential inservice programs. Although to a great extent simplified, and certainly not responding to the full complexity of the model presented in this paper, the examples do reflect a practical application of the concepts that underlie the model. In actual use, it's expected that the planning documents would be much longer and presented in much greater detail, thus realizing fuller application of the "Problem Box." The program analyses were added to suggest only a few of the intricacies that would not come out with a rigid interpretation of the inservice developmental model.

IN SUMMARY

This paper has presented an exploratory, synthetic model for attempting to analyze the significant variables that underlie intelligent planning for inservice education. The critical elements of the model include population targets, goal types, and an array of issues that must be considered. Finally, a typology for thinking about program delivery options was presented in conjunction with some practical examples. The intent of this paper has not been to present a model and a process that are "set in concrete." Rather, the intent has been to suggest the initial steps in the development of an approach to the conceptualization, initiaion, and development of the delivery systems for inservice programs that is both analytical and logical. It has been the implicit position that such an approach has not historically existed in inservice education in this country.

Conspicuously absent in this paper were specific program labels and content orientations. These omissions were intentional. Terms such as "Advisory and Exchange," "Project Blank," "The Teachers' Workshop," and others tend to be structurally and functionally vacuous. In other words, program labels inhibit intelligent communication and dissemination efforts for inservice education. Also, content areas such as open education, the instruction of reading, competency-based education, and the like do not lead to an understanding of delivery systems, but, rather, should be reflected in any delivery option that has been intelligently thought out and initiated. Although in certain cases some delivery options will be more appropriately suited to specific content areas, there has been a tendency to reverse the two and get the cart before the horse. Succinctly, content areas typically do not define delivery systems, but delivery systems ought to lend themselves to a variety of content areas.

Planning for program development in inservice education is a risky activity at best. Contemporary approaches to this task have been both short-term and short-sighted. The model presented in this paper attempts to provide the substance from which program developers can move productively forward. It is only with the "big picture" that truly responsive activities can emerge that will enable education professionals to better provide for children in schools. The provision of a first glimpse of that picture has been the intent of this paper.

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INSERVICE TRAINING AND MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION

James Boyer
Kansas State University

The profession of education has always attempted to respond to the most urgent needs of the American society. Teachers and administrators have worked untiringly to provide the most appropriate and most productive service known to mankind--through the American public school. While much criticism is directed toward the public schools today, it is still true that we have the best educated populace on the face of the earth within the framework of a democracy. This is not to say that the American educator has changed approaches of instruction or that he/she has always utilized the best content for the times or the learners, but visible effort has been made on the part of researchers, teachers, administrators, supervisors, curriculum specialists, professors, and others to deliver an academic service representative of the high quality for which America is known. We are not unaware of the levels of illiteracy which still exist, and we are cognizant of the reading difficulties which many Americans experience plus the devastation evolving from hunger, malnutrition, poverty, and the variety of social ills among us. The profession has still attempted to serve well within the framework of priorities set for it. This paper on inservice training, then, is an attempt to explore the nature of inservice for American educators and to analyze its role and function along with some prescriptive suggestions for an improved effort, particularly as it relates to multi-cultural education in the decades ahead.

THE CONCEPT OF INSERVICE

The education of the American teacher has historically been divided into two categories (preservice and inservice). The dividing line has been acquisition of the baccalaureate degree and the state teaching certificate or license. All training occurring prior to degree and certificate was categorized as *preservice* and all subsequent training (assuming that such persons had also been employed as educators) was categorized as *inservice*. The basic purpose of inservice training was to *increase the competency, the skill, the perception, and the performance* of the educator with ultimate improvement in the achievement of learners being the goal. Basically, there are several levels of inservice activity, but we shall concern ourselves with just two:

Level #1: *Administrative-Managerial*

This level involves those aspects which would improve the educator's basic function in the school and community as a team member (staff member). Such aspects would include understanding the administrative style operative in the school and understanding how the teacher is expected to function, such items as task assignments (which learners would be taught by the teacher, which responsibilities would be assumed by the administrator, and general expectations) and the procedures for acquiring materials, acquiring leaves, and basic managerial concerns. When faculty meetings are called to share this kind of information, they are referred to as administrative faculty meetings. Inservice efforts under this level are frequently under the specific direction of the assigned administrator. Rarely are consultants outside the district's staff used.

Level #2: *Curriculum-Instructional*

This level involves those aspects of inservice education designed to improve the educator's role in specific instructional performance and in curriculum development activities. While this is not limited to attendance at sessions, it is certainly concerned with the theory and practice of instructional delivery systems and with curriculum analysis. The influence of educational and psychological research and the dissemination of curriculum knowledge are chief components of this level of inservice education. Concerns with particular disciplines and skills are part of this level (reading, mathematics, music, etc.) but the totality of teaching-learning, instructional role descriptions and learning patterns are also major entities.

The major focus of this document is on Level #2 as the concerns will be related to multi-cultural education (both for the teacher and the learner). There will be several instances where the two levels overlap and will not be clearly distinguishable from each other, but the intent is to focus on the Curriculum-Instructional components of schooling through inservice efforts which enhance multi-cultural education

Inservice activity has traditionally been limited to courses, workshops, after-school faculty meetings, lectures, and inter-school visitations. While these represent acceptable channels through which training may occur, we are also concerned with the expansion of such channels. More significantly, we are concerned with the substance of the training which occurs, that is, the content of what is gained by educators. The idea of inservice is not new and there is much variation across the country in the design of inservice activity. Historically, however, these efforts have been less rewarding than most of us would like and they have been met with strong opposition by many teachers. (Throughout much of this paper, teacher will be used collectively to include anyone whose professional service employment is dependent on learners. If there were no learners in a given district, there would be no superintendent, no supervisor, no principal, etc. Therefore, all professional employees responsible for the direct instruction of learners are included in the concept of teacher.)

Inservice concerns have frequently been under-emphasized because of the perceptions held by educators of their merit. Inservice has historically had low priority, and budgeting considerations have left much to be desired in this realm. One of the reasons for the low priority (primarily at the policy-making level) is that inservice has always been presented as an "additional duty" for educators rather than an integral part of the profession of teaching. Collegiate programs during preservice education rarely concern themselves with inservice education so that undergraduates have little or no knowledge of its use, role, or function. Consequently, teachers enter the profession with little understanding of the nature of a profession's concern with the concept of inservice. These realities make it somewhat difficult for the inexperienced teacher to begin viewing it as a normal part of professional activity. Further, in some instances, this negative view has been reinforced by the experienced teacher.

Galloway and Mulhern, writing in A School for Tomorrow (edited by Jack R. Frymier) make the following observation regarding inservice:

> Inservice education has always been available to the aspiring and conscientious professional. It has also been

> made mandatory for those who chose to neglect its promise. Thus, inservice education has been self-selected and required for varying reasons. Inservice education has prevailed, and its purpose of promoting professional development has remained unquestioned. (1)

Most observers would agree with this statement and it has only been in recent times that real attempts at formal evaluation of inservice effort have been made. Finally, we have come to the point where those who are to benefit from the service have input into the evaluation of that service. This is an encouraging trend and much inservice effort will be improved as a result.

THE NEED FOR INSERVICE

The education profession, by some definitions, is one of the newer professions still attempting to gain the status of a profession. The original professions of law, medicine, and religion always required that the practitioner continue his/her education throughout the entire professional life. The reason for this grew out of the need to have the professional gain new knowledge and competencies necessary to maintain a current level of knowledge within the profession. In order to avoid drifting into professional obsolescence, the professional must continue to study, to experiment, to research new levels of understanding about developments germane to the practice of his/her art. Not only is this a basic necessity for the professional educator, but this is also an urgent concern because of the vast changes in the populations being served by educators. These major changes have included pedagogical changes as well as substantive changes in content and in the relationships between adults and children. Additionally, the basic technological changes as well as the new knowledge related to learning theory and the application of research findings must be part of the teacher's inservice activities.

Within the last fifteen years, major changes and developments have had impact on the school and some of these are indirectly related to the task of teaching and learning, but the teacher's role is so demanding and so complex that many areas need our attention. Haberman cites some of the many needs of teachers:

> Teachers should: know more subject matter; go through sensitivity training; learn verbal and nonverbal teaching strategies; diagnose, prescribe, and evaluate learning;

> consume and conduct research; learn to work in teams; create, select, and evaluate media and materials; teach aides, students, and interns; function as change agents. (2)

Given these demands, one questions the possibility of undergraduate programs ever becoming capable of delivering all such competencies.

Additionally, there is the realization that personnel needs among educators are decreasing because of the large number of persons acquiring credentials to enter the profession--and the concurrent decrease in public school enrollments. These factors occurred around the time that economic factors (inflation, recession, and unemployment) became realities in the United States and the resulting impact is that there are fewer teachers leaving classrooms and fewer new teachers gaining employment. This means that schools will be populated with more experienced teachers whose need to remain current will become even more crucial. The economic factors also contribute to a general apprehension and uneasiness among members of the teaching profession and these tend to be carried into the classroom, affecting instructional behavior. Frustrations are at an all-time high among adults and the high degree of nervous and mental disorders attests to the uncertain state of many practitioners among us. All these are items which must be considered as the subject of inservice and are discussed within any profession today.

Russell Doll, assessing the problems of urban teachers, identified the three areas in which most criticism of teachers has occurred:

> ...teachers lack technical skills and appropriate materials. Most teachers...are basically competent people who do not know the learning styles of low-income children and are attempting to teach in an inappropriate manner, using inappropriate materials and methods. (3)

Continuing the areas of criticism of urban teachers:

> A second category includes those who held that the middle-class teacher is either intentionally or unintentionally callous toward the low-income pupil. The teacher enters the classroom with preconceived ideas of what is proper in behavior, language, and dress and, in most instances, feels that the children are deficient in meeting the expectations of correctness.
>
> ...another group of critics saw the teacher as one who has lost the faith, a person suffering from a failure of will. Instead of being true to the teaching spirit of commitment and dedication, he has given up in the face of a difficult situation, abandoning the low-income children in their hour of need. (4)

The concept of inservice, then, involves the identification of continued teacher-training programs which would attempt to alleviate the problems identified in the criticisms if the criticisms have any validity. Two assumptions are made by the criticisms, however. One is that all urban pupils are from low-income families and the other is that all urban teachers are equally as incompetent in delivering instructional services. While we would take issue with both assumptions, our concern at this time is with the nature of inservice effort which could contribute to an improved school experience of school children.

INSERVICE AND THE EXPERIENCED TEACHER

With the increased percentage of experienced teachers in the schools today, designers of inservice programs must work toward changing the image of inservice training because it has not been met with great favor in recent years. Experienced teachers are also extremely conscious of the demands on their time and on their energies. This suggests that the designs of present inservice activities must be re-shaped and that administrative priorities must be re-arranged. The prevailing feeling that experienced teachers no longer need inservice activities also suggests that perceptions of the teaching profession must also be modified. The structure of inservice training is described by Kimball Wiles as follows:

> Inservice education is an attempt to increase the competency of the present staff through courses, workshops, conferences, study groups, inter-school visitations, lectures, and staff improvement days. Some large schools have elaborate operations with many offerings, and teachers are required to attend a given number of sessions. Some present their inservice by television. Almost all school systems make some effort to upgrade their staff. Many state departments of education require that teachers take an additional college course every three or four years if they wish to have a certificate renewed. (5)

Regardless of the structure of inservice effort, major changes in the substance of major presentations must be made in order to serve the needs of experienced teachers. The structure described by Wiles represents the form of inservice but does not speak to the substance or content of such effort. We shall speak to the substance of inservice later but the form provides the initial impressions for teachers. Experienced teachers, having knowledge of past efforts, tend to approach inservice activities with the feeling that they could better use their time in other pursuits. In order to modify the form of inservice effort, the Administrative-Managerial component must be analyzed. Those responsible for staff development are now faced with structural designs so that basic perceptions of inservice can be improved. Administrative decision-making must take into account the sensitivities of experienced teachers as well as the programmatic priorities, including budgetary allocations. Although some have taken issue with the present support of inservice training, it would appear that a re-ordering of support would be appropriate. Morris Cogan speaks to the investment of resources into inservice education:

> ...the dollar inputs, the expertise, and the time deployed in these efforts are almost universally insufficient to spark genuine professional gains among teachers. Inservice programs therefore often have more form than content and too often represent a poor use of scarce resources and a waste of teachers' time and efforts. (6)

As a curriculum specialist, we recognize the need for efficiency in all programmatic effort; however, we take the position that both form and content are significant to the point of warranting continued attention. The difficulty arises when analysts fail to distinguish between the two and when this distinction is not subsequently shared with those who are to benefit from the inservice training. Additionally, it should be recognized that the form and the content are constantly undergoing change and these changes must be reflected in inservice effort.

A more comprehensive view of the inservice function with experienced teachers is shared by R. C. Bradley in discussing the affective domain reflected through teacher performance. While the substance of teaching is always a necessary component, the following excerpt describes another component that must be considered--as we think of the experienced teacher's inservice involvement:

> As the student of modern psychology knows, behavior is only a symptom of internal states--feeling, believing, seeing and understanding. ...the individual teacher must search out his true feelings regarding his own methods of teaching. He must become more fully aware of the basis for his attitudes and actions toward the learners. His behaviors are readily noted when he is in the process of executing his lesson plan--this, the initial teaching act, is the time at which he portrays vividly and personifies exactly that "what he is he does." (7)

There are varying degrees of experience among teachers. Many school districts provide intensive programs for first and second-year teachers but neglect more experienced practitioners. Bradley's ideas suggest that the improvement of instruction for experienced personnel could constitute major aspects of the inservice training program. The feelings, beliefs, and understandings of experienced teachers permeate the totality of curriculum implementation and, thus, the total school experience of the learners enrolled. While there are several parts to a comprehensive inservice program, one must remember the long-range effect of instructional behavior if priorities are to be set.

PATTERNS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

As implied earlier, inservice training is not a new idea. Earlier in the teaching profession, there were many practitioners across the country who were minimally trained. In fact, many did not hold teaching certificates or degrees. During this period, it was crucial that some extended improvement efforts be underway at all times in the interest of a literate society. Also, teacher education has experienced low priorities by those in power to make political and economic decisions. During those times, the teacher was perceived as a docile, compliant individual by the political and economic decision-makers in the United States, and even on the university campus, many of those majoring in teacher education experienced acts of "academic snobbery" from others comprising the academic community. In recent times, members of the profession have sought to remove all non-certificated personnel and to encourage the acquisition of highly trained specialists to fill instructional positions. In some states, the Master's degree is the minimum level of training for employment within schools, and these new levels of training (requirements) have not had adverse effect on those states. In other words, they have had no difficulty in finding persons with the credentials to fill positions. It should be remembered that the teaching certificate or teaching license issued by a state represents the lowest level of academic preparation acceptable for gainful employment as a practitioner. By lowest level, we mean that the certificate reflects the minimum level of preparation for the given task of teaching/administration/supervision. Given this, it is even more significant that inservice programs increase and become more vigorous.

Today, however, the perception of teachers has changed. With the increase in the quality and quantity of preparation came an awareness of one's role and of one's human rights and professional significance. Despite the work of the traditional professional organizations, teachers' unions became a major force in the American educational system. These unions now frequently specify the extent to which teachers shall engage in inservice activities. No longer is the teacher seen as a docile, compliant practitioner but a forceful voice in the decision-making activities affecting schooling--and this includes the continued schooling of the teacher (inservice training).

A final pattern related to teacher education is the effort to balance the concern with the structure of the disciplines (history, physics, mathematics, etc.) with the concern for curriculum possibilities in helping to solve the problems which face us. It involves putting old and new knowledge to work in the elimination of problems which threaten our physical and psychological health. These ideas were expressed by Jerome Bruner when he addressed the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in their national conference a few years ago. It should be remembered that curriculum people focused on the re-ordering of subject matter in quest of better educating America's populace, and during this period, we spent much of the inservice effort in understanding and analyzing the new content of the disciplines. Examples of this include the intensity with which teachers worked on understanding modern mathematics. In reviewing our sense of values and our priorities in life, we must consider the way in which we spend our time, that is whether we spend our inservice time with too great an emphasis on any one of these dimensions.

Today, there are new questions about priorities in emphasis as well as about the treatment of a given subject after the priorities have been set. The basic pattern of inservice activities tended to reflect a primary concern with the Administrative-Managerial level and this frequently meant responding to crisis situations, administrative report-making, and changes in school policy. The sharing of information which must be compiled by the Principal for the Superintendent's office became a major reason for calling the faculty and staff together. As stated earlier, we are more concerned here with Level #2, the Curriculum-Instructional Level because it is felt that this level more directly reflects the influence of educational and psychological research which has direct relationship to the quality of the instructional delivery system. In other words, we see the Curriculum-Instruction concern as a means of preventing discord, conflict, and general unrest within the school. It serves mainly to prevent upheaval through providing knowledge consistent with the changing needs of children and of the professional staff charged with working with the curriculum. It is partially designed to decrease alienation and to promote articulation within a setting and to promote a feeling which could be described as "integrated." We see inservice performing a major role of prevention rather than remediation; however, both concepts are frequently involved because of the nature of concerns dealt with in sessions and in independent activity.

Another pattern which actually encouraged the acquisition of additional university credits in teacher education was the adjustment in salary scales for those teachers who earned thirty or more semester credits beyond the master's degree. While this is admirable in theory, one questions the validity of the practice with regard to inservice training which is specifically designed to improve instruction in a given school--or in a given school district. Further, few experienced teachers have been exposed to "total curriculum efforts," especially those designed to have elementary and secondary teachers understand what the other is doing. That is, few understand the relationship of what the primary teacher does in language arts to the ultimate tasks and skills of senior high English teachers. Additional credits at the graduate level may or may not build such understandings with teachers from a particular district.

It should be mentioned that some efforts are beginning to focus on the particular curricular problems of a given district because of the "clinical approaches" now being developed to serve particular districts. This involves a series of activities in which specific curricular problems are identified by the school and/or district and resource persons are charged with helping with the particular problem identified. This is quite different from a university offering a course in Curriculum Development which frequently has no relationship to specific curricular concerns of the district(s) being served. While it is necessary to provide the theoretical framework in which the Curriculum-Instructional Level must be approached, the demand for inservice activities today must be designed so that those being served understand the relationship and the design.

INSERVICE AND THE CONTROVERSY OF THE DISCIPLINES

Criticism of the teaching profession has been categorized earlier but there is still one area which is being heard frequently these days and that concerns the teacher's cognitive knowledge which comes directly from the traditional disciplines. The disciplines referred to are those established areas of content (the sciences, mathematics, literature, history, etc.) which comprise the traditional areas of study employed in public school and collegiate teaching. The controversy exists when these disciplines compete with each other for requirements for degrees and certification and ultimate improved teaching. Many feel that a single discipline is the answer to improved instruction. While we support some involvement with the disciplines as a basis for a "formally educated individual," it should be remembered that the bulk of America's students do, in fact, acquire adequate levels of cognitive input. Of course, we are concerned with scores made on teacher-made tests as well as standardized tests, but the ultimate test of all schooling is the long-range impact on human behavior and human functioning as a citizen. The social problems facing us today are not the outgrowth of "lack of knowledge from the disciplines" alone but reflect the lack of many additional aspects--multi-cultural education being one of them. The visible quest by specialists in the traditional disciplines for students from the ranks of teachers is phenomenal. Part of this is related to the economic crisis in which we find ourselves, but part of it is also due to the fact that each training area (disciplines included) must "fight to stay alive" in a period of decreasing enrollments and other factors.

It should be pointed out that the disciplines have been primarily responsible for the general education of teachers while the professional education of teachers has been the responsibility of those who are specialists in the theory and practice of instruction. Others have contributed greatly to both these dimensions and the reference is to primary responsibility.

PROFILING PRESERVICE (UNDERGRADUATE) TRAINING

When one considers the multiple tasks identified for the teacher of today (those described by Haberman earlier in this document) plus those being constantly identified by others, the question of the capability of undergraduate preservice education to deliver all them, even at the entry level, becomes paramount. Obviously the teaching role is expanding and new survival skills are being identified for those who would remain in the profession But inservice education should remember that the task of undergraduate education may be too demanding. It may be asking too much of preparation programs to provide the general education *and* the professional education prior to entering as a practitioner. Instead, it may require additional time to prepare a teacher just as it does to prepare an attorney or a dentist. Designers of inservice programs should remember the nature of undergraduate programs. For example, many undergraduate programs for secondary teachers are comprised of about *five-sixths* general and discipline-oriented education and *one-sixth* professional education. Such an imbalance may be deemed necessary and appropriate by many, but the nature of conflict in schools at the secondary level might suggest a review of the emphasis. The increased "laboratory skills development emphasis," as reflected through student-teaching and other innovations associated with giving the prospective teacher more contact with learners, might bear this out.

In other words, the designers of inservice education should see that design as a continuation of preservice efforts, not as remediation. The lifelong pursuit of excellence in the education profession should become a basic characteristic rather than an imposition on professionals who are already holding "demanding roles."

We take no issue with those observers who indicate that something different should be done with the time allotted to undergraduate preservice training of teachers. Almost every Curriculum Specialist would agree, at least in part, with such a position. The total abolishment of one dimension for the acquisition of another, however, may be equally as detrimental. Even so, priorities must be set and continually reviewed. Professional education has had its share of critics and so the kind of *re-ordering* suggested here would involve both the *design and the implementation* of inservice programs.

COMMON INSERVICE EMPHASIS

While most school districts have some form of inservice activity underway, few have attempted to specify the particular needs, the inservice function, or the dimensions/levels involved with a given district. Additionally, few resource persons (higher education curriculum specialists, administration specialists, or psychologists) have attempted to identify for the participants the particular arena in which their efforts would be found. Each particular school or district must identify its own needs but having assistance in conducting a comprehensive needs assessment is most appropriate.

The following Inservice Emphasis chart attempts to identify the arenas in which inservice effort must be identified. Almost all activity underway today would or could be placed somewhere on the chart.

Those observers who have attempted to analytically describe inservice functions will be able to see that Function A (Crisis and Conflict Resolution) is basically designed for remediation while Functions B and C tend to be designed for prevention and development. The continuous characteristic of inservice emphasis is implied.

It should be remembered that, in some instances, the two levels reflected in the chart may be combined but rarely could they be given equal emphasis. Within the designed program should be an inherent proclamation that one or the other is the level on which programs are built.

Finally, Consciousness-Raising and Long-Range Staff Development are major components requiring investments of time and resources (human and financial). Until those responsible for program development and inservice training are aware of the nature, functions, and processes representing clarity in design and purpose along with implementation, inservice training will continue to be met with apprehension, rejection and, in some instances, hostility.

MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Discussions of inservice are frequently being combined with discussions of Multi-cultural Education. Few writers have chosen to build an historical perspective related to multi-cultural entities or to clarify the rationale for its increase in significance today. The American teacher (principal, teacher, supervisor, curriculum assistant, librarian, counselor, etc.) was essentially prepared with mono-cultural curriculum programs, rather than multi-cultural programs. The continued inservice efforts following entry into the profession also reflected the mono-cultural characteristic. Our position is that the continued schooling of teachers must be current in

COMMON INSERVICE EMPHASIS

Inservice Function	Administrative-Managerial Level	Curriculum-Instructional Level
A. Crisis or Conflict Resolution (Within and among schools)	1. Resolving differences (mainly for the moment) 2. Specifying new rules (attempting to control behavior) 3. Identifying infractions of behavior (outgrowths of tradition, perceptions, values)	1. Analyzing the behavior of school people (teachers, learners, staff)
B. Consciousness-Raising (on the part of all persons--teachers, administrators, supervisors, non-certified persons)	1. Generating procedures for teacher behavior which is designed to diminish erratic decision-making 2. Essentially legal-consciousness raising	1. Awareness training of self-and-others (Who am I? What are my hang-ups?) 2. Increasing the knowledge level of staff in diverse curriculum content (exploring the non-European content historically excluded) 3. Studying the dynamics of a specific school and/or area (economic patterns, neighborhood schools, etc.) 4. Essentially moral and pedagogical consciousness-raising rather than legal
C. Long-Range Staff Development (involving those aspects designed to ultimately improve instruction)	1. Study of economic patterns of families served by the school and/or district 2. Restructuring the traditional use of school facilities and school functions	1. Programmatic identifications for some attention to "global issues" presently occurring among school people that have impact on curriculum implementation 2. Changing nature of adult/child relationships 3. Action research on the nature of changing student needs 4. Decreasing alienation

nature to the point of utilizing new knowledge and new understandings about the philosophies on which American education programs were built. Concepts of academic respectability, of classical learnings, and of curriculum diversity are all new to the inservice scene and to the public school curriculum scene. Before sharing a descriptive definition of multi-cultural curriculum, a brief historical perspective for American schooling is offered.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Around 1960, this country began a series of activities (consciously and unconsciously) which initiated major changes in our social, economic, political, and educational system. This is not to suggest that the Supreme Court decision of 1954 did not have greater impact than any decision in the previous fifty years, but the decade of the sixties provided a public consciousness-raising such as we had never known before. That decade was characterized by sit-ins, by early legislation to combat unemployment (Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964) and by other major pieces of legislation which are famous:

1962 - Manpower Development & Training Act

1963 - Vocational Education Act

1964 - Economic Opportunity Act

1964 - Civil Rights Act

1965 - Elementary/Secondary Education Act

1965 - (Subsequent Teacher Corps Legislation)

1965 - Higher Education Act

1965 - Voting Rights Act

In addition to the legislation (and the foregoing list is not necessarily complete), emphasis on community action programs and on other extensions of the "war on poverty" brought the United States to a concern with domestic affairs not experienced in recent decades. Civil disorders, riots, rebellions (or whatever one chooses to call them) sent Congress looking for remediation and corrective action. Much of this reality resulted in programmatic creations (education programs) built on a philosophy of "Compensatory Education." Somehow, the American public decided that the children who had not done well in school needed some compensation--basically for their impoverished state. Compensatory education took the position that there was nothing wrong with the teachers or the school--that all adjustment must be made within the learner who had not done well. The "Compensatory Model" suggested placing additional equipment and resources in those schools populated by low-income children. The "Compensatory Model," however, was to be implemented by teachers trained in traditional programs and few people were pleased with the ultimate results.

By 1969, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, through its National Steering Committee and Task Force, published a booklet called Teachers for the Real World. This booklet, without directly stating so, declared the inappropriateness and ineffectiveness of the "Compensatory Model." Finally, someone had re-focused attention on deficits in teachers and teacher training and brought us to additional levels of awareness. One excerpt from it follows:

> The teacher must also face the question of racial prejudice in himself. The white teacher harbors many prejudices of which he is unaware. The Negro (Black) teacher may carry feelings of resentment and aggression that come with a feeling of imposed inferiority. It is necessary for the teacher to face his personal problems squarely and to include in his program of preparation experiences to shock him into the realization of his prejudices and show him how to deal with them. Just as there are prejudices in the teacher's feelings and modes of thought, so too are these found in pupils and in the adults of the community. (8)

Although some inservice concerns had been built into compensatory legislation (notably Title I), none had directly focused on the teacher as a person/practitioner. Concerns of cultural awareness, of openness, of racism reduction, of objectivity, and of the rights of others became paramount in discussions, while little happened to the substance of curriculum in schools.

The decade of the sixties closed, then, with this one direct attack on the consciousness of the education profession. Other indirect attacks were highlighted:

> Since national self-interest is involved in the productivity of effectiveness of our schools, new, more firm and substantial and far less fussy national involvements are called for as well.
>
> Unless teachers are those who can identify with those in their classroom in terms of "we," they are not the proper instruments for the education of that particular group of

> children. Ideally, teachers and administrators who fail to identify with their pupils should be transferred elsewhere and others who can relate more closely to the needs of pupils should be sought for the task at hand. (9)

About the time 1969-1970, the pattern in our national-social consciousness was clear. We had started with awareness levels:

Awareness of Civil Rights (legal)

Awareness of Human Rights (sensitivity to relationships among people)

Awareness of Women's Rights (Legal, Social and Political)

Awareness of Children's Rights (All Dimensions).

Each of these new awareness levels followed us into the present decade and we have been struggling with the educational implications since 1970. The changing nature of all relationships affected the nature of school curriculum and, thus, the nature of inservice for those persons implementing the curriculum (certified personnel).

Not only is the caste system being diminished but the implications of such a system must be dealt with in light of human awareness. The legal framework for our behavior in schools has been established through legislation and other edicts. The interactions subsequent to the legal framework involve multi-cultural curriculum.

Additionally, concerns about "survival of the profession" got transferred to "survival within the profession." Increases in calls for personnel evaluation and other factors bore this out.

It was with the onset of the 1970's that compensatory education began giving away to a new concept known as multi-cultural curriculum (education). The new concept is much more comprehensive than the old. Such a multi-cultural emphasis requires the total examination, analysis and reorganization of much of what has been called objective schooling.

Leaders of the movement to reform public school curriculum (and college/university curriculum) have essentially functioned from within the system to change the system. This has been most difficult for many whose consciousness levels had not been raised because the earlier leaders during the compensatory model days had essentially "evangelized" by citing problems with few analyses and few solutions. Rather than re-stating the problems associated with American education, multi-cultural education attempts to analyze and cite possible solutions which would have long-range effects on motivation, on achievement, on ultimate human relationships, and on the concept of the "formally educated individual" in our society. Multi-cultural education is not just for children who had not done well in school heretofore; it is not just for Black children, Puerto Rican children, Mexican American children, Asian American children, Native American children, or Caucasian children from impoverished families. It is for *all children*, even in communities where there are no highly visible minorities. This is not met with great favor in many sectors of the academic community, but before moving further with the historical perspective and the rationale, the following descriptors are offered.

ABOUT MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION

The anthropological concept of culture is extremely broad and includes the physiological, psychological, sociological dimensions of a group of people. It includes those instructional sequences which attempt to reflect the totality of American culture, not through assimilation, but through acculturation and the visible distinction of one cultural variation from another. Multi-cultural studies address themselves to the similarities *and* differences among people within the framework of *equal respect* for these traits. Multi-cultural education also means the *recognition of variation* through instructional approaches, materials, assessment, and it is not in conflict with multi-ethnic ideas and ideals. Rather, it suggests the autonomous freedom of cultural variation among entities in the American milieu.

There is little disagreement that the education provided in American schools reflects the perceptions, myths, realities and practices (a basic orientation) as seen by White, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant, Middle-income people. Yet America is populated by many groups other than those--and by groups who have an orientation to reality based upon criteria that are similar to, but different from, white middle-income America. Currently, the *mono-cultural* curriculum represents the knowledges, skills, attitudes, and practices deemed essential to the maintenance and perpetuation of a mode of life of a particular group (bearing a particular cultural identity and economic standing). To move from a *mono*-cultural curriculum to a *multi*-cultural curriculum would involve the acknowledgement of the existence of different sets of values and behaviors and to accord these values a degree of worth sufficient for academic maintenance and perpetuation.

Multi-cultural education also attempts to give equal and appropriate attention to content drawn from the historical and sociological heritage of various ethnic groups represented in America (not necessarily in the school or district) where inservice might occur. Part of the thrust of multi-cultural education is to fill the instructional void created by curricular exclusion of numerical minorities in the United States.

While multi-cultural curriculum attempts to provide substantive content which includes the racial, social, economic, ethnic, and political diversity represented in America, it is also providing a degree of balance (balance for "things of the mind") for children whose backgrounds have been historically reflected in curricular substance.

ELIMINATING RACISM, SEXISM, AND ELITISM

Without any reservation, we take the position that multi-cultural education is designed toward the elimination of racism, sexism, and elitism. In other words, to acknowledge that a society is composed of many cultural and ethnic groups while adhering to a mono-cultural curriculum which denies the existence of these groups is to expose a basic contradiction in the concept of full educational opportunity. The reduction of racism involves decreasing the belief that race is the primary determinant of human traits and capacities. It further involves decreasing the belief that racial differences produce the inherent superiority or inferiority of a particular race. The reduction of institutional racism involves the operation of those entities (the school is an example) which directly affect the lives of people and the philosophies on which their operations are based.

Sexism is the belief that one sex (male or female) is inherently superior to the other. Such belief manifests itself in behaviors which restrict one sex from opportunities, activities, and privileges normally granted to the other sex. Sexism is also demonstrated in the substance of curricular materials and in policies made within schools. In recent times, this idea has referred to discriminatory behavior against females, but it is not limited to this. Reduction of this belief is also a part of multi-cultural education--

although an expanded part of its original concept.

Elitism is the idea that one group (usually an economic group) is better than another based on the value judgments of that group regarding their attributes and characteristics. Elitism involves the concept of social superiority because of economic advancement. Further, it incorporates the idea that one group in society is better able to govern, and therefore should hold the political power. Elitism, however, may be practiced on several economic levels and may reflect a number of contributing factors. Multi-cultural education attempts to reduce the concept and practice of elitism by substantively declaring a notion of the *dispersement of power* in all its dimensions.

Accepting the recognition of the social, cultural, and economic heritage of several racial and ethnic groups represents a major component of the ideal of full and equal education opportunity. The inclusion of these heritages into the curriculum (on an on-going basis) is an attempt to reform American education from its mono-cultural status to a multi-cultural status.

MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION AND DESEGREGATION

With the onset of school desegregation, many teachers felt inadequate to teach children who were racially, ethnically and economically different from themselves. Much of the inservice training occurring immediately following desegregation has limited itself to the function of *crisis and conflict resolution*. We see multi-cultural education as serving the function of *improvement*, *development*, and keeping one's profession *current*.

Some persons raise the question of multi-cultural curriculum (especially in desegregated schools) even if *teachers feel uncomfortable relating to children and content across racial lines*. Teachers, like everyone else, feel uncomfortable when confronted with the unknown or the unfamiliar. Because people can *learn* to know the unknown and become *familiar* with the unfamiliar, our position is that inservice efforts designed to enhance this dimension of teacher performance will generate little difficulty on the part of good and effective teachers. The art of relating to children across racial/ethnic lines is ultimately the result of the teacher's academic/professional perception of the school, the curriculum, and the teaching role. Well designed inservice training for multi-cultural education is the vehicle through which the reluctant teacher/administrator can overcome reluctance in dealing with phenomena related to teaching and learning. (Inservice training may be in the form of readings, workshops, institutes, self-initiated study and personal involvement.) Obviously, genuine interest and commitment to the profession and to one's self are primary ingredients for effective development of multicultural education. It is common understanding that undergraduate programs of teacher preparation have done little to expose the practitioner to the purposes, components, and rationale for multi-cultural education. To become relevant and current for implementation of multi-cultural education, administrators and teachers must acquire valid knowledge of the history, current knowledge of the life-styles, perceptions and aspirations of various racial/ethnic groups plus the appropriate skills for teaching these knowledges to student bodies who are part of a multi-cultural society. Inherent in the process of acquiring these knowledges and skills is the prerequisite of positive attitudes for authentic relationships with multi-cultural peoples.

Desegregation implies that long-standing socially-inspired practices of separation are being challenged and eroded. Following these moves, much inservice has had to deal in crisis-oriented moves. Beyond that level, however, those of us concerned with long-range effects of schooling have been more concerned with the manner in which the instructional program was desegregated, in addition to the school, and the resulting effect on the dignity of children (all children). In a chapter on "Preserving the Dignity of Children in a Desegregated Society," the following is offered:

> But before we can preserve it (dignity), we must assume that it exists. We must re-declare our belief in the dignity of children and youth. To what extent do I (the teacher) really believe in such ideas? Preservation of it involves other subsequent notions:
>
> (1) The way in which a teacher talks with learners.
> (2) The territorial rights assumed by educators and others.
> (3) The assumptions made about social class and economic class.
> (4) The selection of instructional content which creates images.
> (5) The analysis of decision-making practices and policies in adult-child relationships.
> (6) The ability to share the power of decision-making.
> (7) The ability to be assessed by children and youth as well as to assess. (Assessing human behavior) (10)

The above notions become part of the inservice goals when the design is toward multi-cultural understandings. It should be remembered that real efforts toward multi-cultural understandings require the challenging of many bases (philosophical bases) upon which curriculum decision rests.

Multi-cultural education also invites more valid interpretation of pedagogical procedure/behavior. The nature of inservice for teachers and administrators in those situations seeking a multi-cultural curriculum reflects the three-dimensional concerns below:

(A) It must increase the multi-ethnic, multi-cultural literacy level of the professionals and para-professionals involved. Educators must know what it is before they can deal with it.

(B) It must develop appropriate ways of developing curriculum programs utilizing multi-cultural emphasis--and at the same time--locate and appraise curriculum materials useful in this pursuit.

(C) It must continue a quest for the development of academic skills (including consumer competence) while making use of multi-cultural substantive content--in that process.

Inherent in the above dimensions is the assumption that educators recognize the need for a multi-cultural education to service a multi-cultural population.

INSERVICE, MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION AND TOTALLY WHITE SCHOOLS

Again, we specify that multi-cultural education is both appropriate and essential in those places and instances where racial desegregation has not occurred and is not likely to occur due to population trends. In other words, there are school districts where no racial minorities reside. In those situations, multi-cultural education should have an even higher priority because the teachers and learners are deprived of the privilege of interacting on a daily basis with people who are different from themselves. Learners enrolled in these districts are likely to move to other locations early in their adult lives. The long-range effect of curriculum substance is vividly displayed when graduates of public school curriculum programs are placed together in higher education and/or employment situations where impressions and behaviors constitute relationships which too often reflect school programs characterized by racism, sexism, and elitism. White children need to know about non-white people, ideas and concerns just as non-white children are called on to know about white people, ideas and concerns. Multi-cultural education has the facility for creating a new level of respect for diversity through awareness of that diversity.

Inservice in totally white schools would do well to make multi-cultural curriculum a high priority. It has the capacity to help develop the culturally-sensitive teacher--one who has the capacity to identify and empathize with the values, aspirations and feelings of others so that we can dispel the fears of cultural differences and increase human communication. For too many decades, the work of the American educator (and thus the school and the curriculum) has left children with limited perceptions of their worth and of the dignity of "different" human beings. Not only children, but their adult teachers and their adolescent brothers and sisters must be exposed to the possibilities of multi-culturalism.

AN EXTENDED VIEW OF MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION

Our concept of multi-cultural education includes the basic dimensions of the program of studies, the program of student activities, and the program of guidance. Further, it includes the relationships and impressions gained when a learner, a parent or other community resident has contact with the school and/or its major representatives. In the program of studies, people frequently begin with Black History in describing multi-cultural education. While it is true that confrontation on college campuses in the sixties by Black students resulted first in hurriedly-conceptualized Black History courses, our concept goes much farther than that. We are concerned with any non-European historical content (Black History, Puerto Rican History, Asian American History, Mexican American History and the like). Multi-cultural education also involves the sociological dimensions (group preferences and concerns, tribal relationships among Native Americans, third world concepts, and varying perceptions of persons within the same ethnic/racial oppressed group, including women). Further, it involves the humanistic dimension (understanding and utilizing those humanities components like Music, Art, Dance, Drama, Poetry, Literature, Speech Patterns, Religious Perspectives, Film, and communicative styles) which are not necessarily European in origin.

These descriptions do not exclude the possibilities within the framework of the technological dimension (knowing, understanding, and utilizing the contributions of persons not of European ancestry)--contributions to technology, to invention, to medicine, etc.

Additionally, inservice programs must raise issues like the following if they are to be truly multi-cultural in nature:

(1) For whom are school holidays named? Are they all Americans of European descent?
(2) Are standardized tests given on Jewish holidays?
(3) Are girls prevented from full participation in any activity--because they are girls?
(4) Are the remedial reading classes populated more by boys than by girls? If so--are any of the remedial reading teachers male rather than female?
(5) Are school policies still prohibiting the free, responsible expression of all its students by certain controls which may mitigate against student rights?
(6) Are the foods served in the school lunch program reflective of the culturally-pluralistic nature of our society? --without sacrificing nutritional value?
(7) On what basis do we choose textbooks and other curriculum materials? Is the multi-cultural element a factor in these decisions?
(8) Does the grading and evaluation practice of teachers in this school/and or district reflect curriculum bias and instructional discrimination against any group (boys, racial minorities, the economically poor)?

Obviously this above list is not complete. But multi-culturalism is a more comprehensive idea than this paper can contain. It has been described by others (notably James A. Banks, Geneva Gay, Jean Grambs, David Washburn, and scores of others) but the description must also be part of the inservice effort.

MULTI-CULTURAL EDUCATION: AN INSERVICE PRIORITY

There are scores of people involved in public education who have difficulty accepting the notion of multi-cultural education for learners and subsequently for members of the education profession. Across the country, we see an increase in the awareness of educators of its role and function. Again, the notion of academic respectability emerges. People are not sure that it is academically respectable to study the works of Black writers, of Mexican

American historians, of Puerto Rican novelists, etc. For one thing, the question of performance on published standardized tests is raised. How shall learners do on standardized achievement tests if we move into a multi-cultural curriculum? Obviously, we feel that the tests themselves are mono-cultural and bear some review, analysis and revision. The work of Robert L. Williams at Washington University and Norman Dixon at the University of Pittsburgh may become part of the inservice exploration. The maintenance of mono-cultural tests should not be a factor to preclude honest, objective, and aggressive curriculum development toward multi-culturalism. Change the tests. Challenge the testing industry and support other efforts which are already underway.

Multi-culturalism must become an inservice priority because survival within the profession will soon demand it. When political power shifts, and when those served get a bigger share in the decision-making role, programmatic direction also shifts. The presence of unions and teacher bargaining units is a daily reminder that changes are underway. Learners will soon have a greater share in determining the substance of their schooling.

To those who say that the program of studies is already full and we cannot add anything, our response is that we must do different things in the time allotted to us. We all recognize that there is more knowledge to be acquired now than ever before, so curriculum specialists, administrators and teachers must be selective about that which shall be dealt with--and they must make those decisions based on a carefully analyzed philosophy in light of the major social-political-economic changes occurring within the last fifteen years in the United States. Because we can no longer use the ten-year-old curriculum substance with today's children, inservice is of prime importance. The content and substance selection process must be reviewed as a part of the thrust toward multi-cultural education with America's educators.

Summarily, we should indicate that the high priority which we suggest should be placed on multi-cultural inservice training grows out of the following: (1) neither previous inservice training nor the undergraduate preparation provided any multi-cultural thrust for America's educators; (2) the vast number of changes and awareness levels of human rights, civil rights, and women's rights requires that educators become more knowledgeable and sophisticated about the impact of these changes on curriculum; and (3) the acknowledged commitment of American educators is to provide the best, most appropriate service to the learners of this country. When those who help to identify the substance of inservice effort really understand the nature, scope, and rationale for multi-cultural inservice education, its priority levels will be raised.

Even in those settings where persons are apprehensive about busing to achieve racial desegregation in schools, concern about the most appropriate substantive curricular offerings is of paramount importance.

ADDITIONAL INSERVICE COMPONENTS (RE: MULTI-CULTURALISM)

While substance of content is a primary factor in multi-cultural inservice education, other factors warranting exposure to the teaching profession include the many agencies, commissions, assemblies and groups working toward these same ends. A partial list follows:

(1) The Council on Interracial Books for Children

(2) The National Education Association's Human Relations Division

(3) Commission on Ethnic Bias of the Association for Supervision/Curriculum Development

(4) The Japanese-American Curriculum Project

(5) Integrated Education Associates

(6) Commission on Multi-Cultural Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

(7) State and National Commissions on Civil Rights (specifically the Education Sections)

(8) National Black Political Assembly

(9) Multi-Cultural and Ethnic Diversity Commissions of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Teachers of English

(10) National Conference on Urban Education

(11) The National Alliance of Black School Educators

(12) Americans for Indian Opportunity (Education Section)

Publications, programs, concerns, resolutions, functions and compositions of these and other groups are of significance to the profession of education if it is to become truly multi-cultural in inservice activities.

SUMMARY

Inservice education appears to be with us to stay as a means for renewing the quality of service provided learners in school settings. Any nation which expects to retain the level of literacy now enjoyed by the United States must employ some form of renewal on a continuous basis. The inservice notion will not only remain with us but will increase in intensity and will expand. With this expansion will come needed new analyses and descriptions.

This paper has attempted to suggest that, of all the possible dimensions of inservice training needing attention, multi-cultural education deserves high priority because of major changes in the American society. Further, we have attempted to provide a brief description of what multi-cultural education includes and this has been done within the framework of the substance of the public school curriculum. Teachers are the implementers of the curriculum and their continued renewal is paramount in maintaining and improving learning opportunities for America's children.

Multi-cultural education will become a major entity--at least for discussion--among those responsible for inservice education. It is our hope that it will be approached, designed, and implemented with the long-range view of its possibilities for providing a richer, more liberating, more effective educational experience for the American teacher and, ultimately, for those served by the American public schools.

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MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS/UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
TEACHER CENTER:
IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR OPEN CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Kenneth R. Howey
University of Minnesota

The primary intent of this paper is to describe how teacher education, especially inservice teacher education for open classroom teachers, is facilitated by one model of the newly evolving structures called teacher centers. Hopefully, the paper will also help clarify the respective concepts of inservice teacher education, teacher/teaching centers and to some extent "open" schooling. An attempt to provide some boundaries to the concept of "in-service" serves as the departure point in this clarification process.

In-service teacher education, even today, resembles a patchwork quilt. Basically the product of spare moments here and there, and usually those at the end of the working day, it is usually a collection of remnants-- in this case remnants of larger ideas and ideals. Rarely has it served as a conduit for major renewal. Rather, like the quilt, it affords the teacher and the school system with some minimal cover and protection. What is included in this patchwork? What is in-service teacher education?

In-service teacher education, as discussed in this paper, is limited to those activities specifically designed to respond to the instructional needs of teachers as defined by their particular classroom or school context. It does not include myriad personal growth activities, whether formally engaged in or naturally occurring-- unless there is a deliberate focus on their application to the classroom. Neither does this definition include the numerous educative experiences in which the teacher engages where the focus is on some element of the schooling process but where there is little, if any, attempt to transfer the content of the experiences to his or her specific situation. Also excluded in this concept are the many educative experiences engaged in by a teacher primarily to move into a role or career other than teaching. Personal growth, generalized and often requisite professional development, and career development can all contribute to but are not synonymous with in-service teacher education as described in this document.

There is no attempt here to ignore the considerable interaction which occurs between these categorizations of teacher renewal nor to claim them as inclusive. Nevertheless, attempts such as this, however basic they might be, to better differentiate the types of growth experiences which a teacher may engage in do serve a useful purpose. If in-service teacher education is to become a more serious enterprise, a better explication of just what is and is not included in that process is the first order of business. Issues revolving around such fundamental questions as governance, financing, delivery and teacher autonomy will not be resolved unless or until there is a clearer delineation of what is meant by in-service teacher education. The patchwork of activities currently embraced in some concepts of in-service not only preempts conceptual advancement but confounds relationships legally, politically, and financially.

This delimited perspective of in-service education has been helpful in defining responsibilities, both independent and collaborative, of two separate systems-- a school and a college-- sponsoring a teacher center. The model reviewed here is the Minneapolis Public Schools/University of Minnesota Teacher Center. While multiple activities of the Center are described, its contribution to (1) fixing teacher training more specifically in the context of explicit program or school renewal, and (2) defining parity in terms of reciprocal services between systems is underscored. The need for context specific in-service is usually intensified when efforts at comprehensive and coherent program renewal are attempted. Such is the case in Minneapolis and this concept of "context specific" warrants further elaboration here.

TEACHER TRAINING IN THE CONTEXT OF SPECIFIC SCHOOL SETTINGS

Historically, most efforts in both the preparation and renewal of teachers have been formulated on the basis of what might be called the generalized needs of practicing professionals. Considerable uniformity in school practice has allowed teacher trainers, usually located in colleges, to organize rather standardized instructional offerings from which teachers may select. Limited personnel resources as well as the logistical difficulties of conducting training in specific school sites have largely precluded teacher education responses hand-tailored to those needs of teachers created by the unique demands of their specific school context.

Certainly, pre-service training has been founded on the assumption that a generalized body of knowledge and skills can be effectively translated by the prospective teacher upon his employment into specific strategies appropriate to his or her school context. It is generally assumed that the fine tuning required in this transition to a specific teaching assignment will come with fuller responsibility and more experience, especially when supplemented by the in-service offerings of that school and/or the larger system. This assumption may be valid, but only to the extent that pre-service training is generally consonant with the basic demands of the actual teaching assignment and in-service offerings are in fact available which further reflect the unique problems attendant to that instructional environment.

Two evolving phenomena, however, mitigate against the possibility of the above conditions. First, there is more variance than ever in a host of demographic factors in our country and this suggests considerable differences between schools located in different social setting and geographic locations. Second, there is also increasing variation in life style and value orientation even within specific social strata and geographic locales. This combination has resulted in a greater expectation by the public of some planned program variation or school alternatives from which they can choose. Distinct differences in school programs are increasingly a reality and these variations, in turn, often call for distinctly different teacher attitudes and skills. Not only pre-service but experienced teachers who were trained for more multi-purpose mainstream schools are often not adequately prepared to make an effective transition into school variations emphasizing a certain value orientation or reflecting a distinct social or cultural need.

This is especially true when the second condition needed for effective transition--inservice education--is often little more responsive than pre-service preparation to the unique needs created by newly evolving expectations. That this is often the case should hardly be surprising if one considers that many school systems are also severely strapped in terms of needed personnel and resources to support continuing education. And often, when the capability exists to respond to the unique needs of a new school direction, the in-service-- just as the pre-service-- knowledge-base needed to effectively intervene falls short. By and large, continuing or inservice teacher education sponsored by individual school systems has also focused upon the generalized concerns of more conventional school contexts (this is not to say that they are not more responsive to local needs than an institution of higher education serving several systems and many schools).

THE REALITY OF EXPLICIT SCHOOL VARIATION

Both the Minneapolis School System and the University of Minnesota's College of Education have contributed substantive resources to the development of a Teacher Center to rectify the above situation. A primary goal of the Center is to explore how teacher training, both pre- and in-service, can be more responsive to the unique needs of teachers in the distinctively different school programs evolving in Minneapolis. Such programs are a reality in Minneapolis for the Minneapolis school system is formally committed by action of the school board to move to systems or arrays of alternative schools. A major goal is to offer a reasonable choice to all parents and their children in the schools. Rather massive program renewal is already underway in many parts of the city and substantial assessment of needs and interests has been completed in all areas.

In a parallel context, the College of Education recently reaffirmed its mission to endorse the following principles:

(a) A major university college must engage in research and experimentation in teacher training and not merely teacher training as such. More scholarly inquiry is needed not only in terms of the most effective way to train teachers but more importantly in determining which new and different teacher role models may in fact be needed in the schools.

(b) The conceptualization of teacher training programs cannot be done apart from specific school programs and prototypes and the role-needs of teachers in those programs. That is to say that often the determinants of teaching effectiveness are context specific. Subsequently the teacher trainee goals stressed in a training program should be role-derived from teachers operating in explicitly defined contexts when possible.

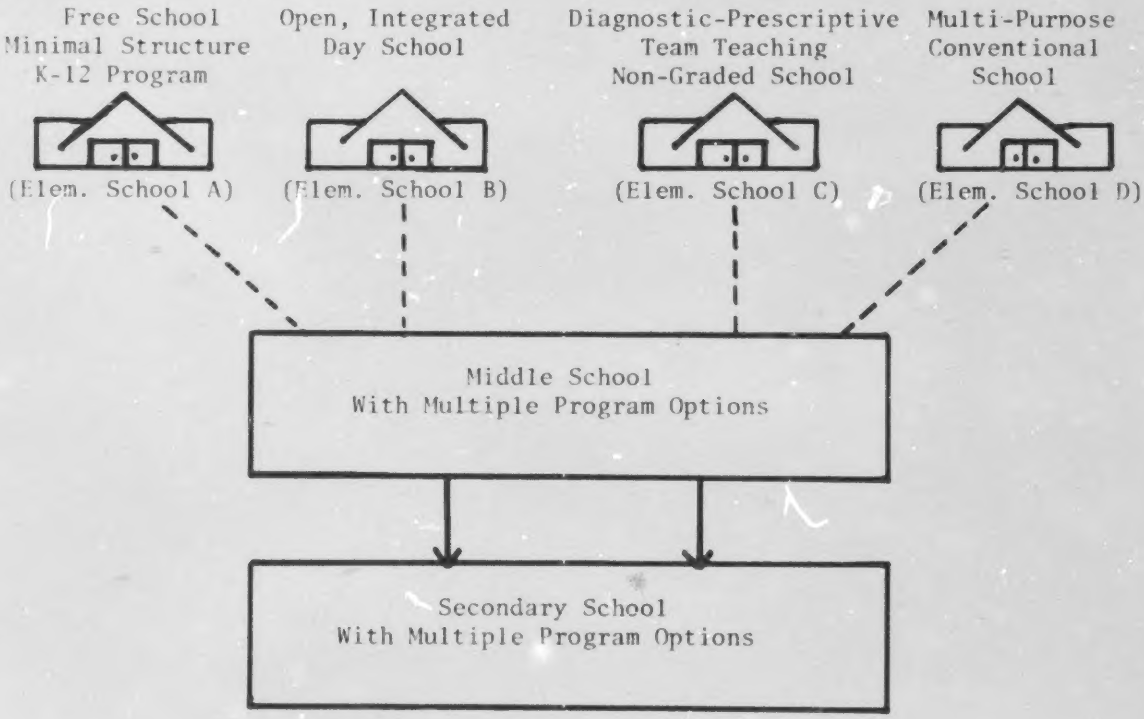
The intersection of goals between these two systems is fairly obvious and the necessary collaboration between them was formalized by the development of a teacher center.

ARRAYS OF ALTERNATIVES

A brief illustration of the planned program variation in Minneapolis which calls for the development of systems or arrays of school alternatives may be helpful. The school community in any given high school attendance area either has or will have at least three different elementary school programs, if desired, from which to select. Figure 1 below outlines the system of alternative schools in the Marshall-University High School attendance area located in southeast Minneapolis, the area in which the Teacher Center is also operated.

FIGURE 1

Marshall-University Attendance Area


Free School
Minimal Structure
K-12 Program
Open, Integrated
Day School
Diagnostic-Prescriptive
Team Teaching
Non-Graded School
Multi-Purpose
Conventional
School
(Elem. School A)
(Elem. School B)
(Elem. School C)
(Elem. School D)
Middle School
With Multiple Program Options
Secondary School
With Multiple Program Options

Basically, planned variation occurs either between separate school facilities in fairly close geographic proximity (as illustrated in Figure 1) where children were bused to the school of their choice or within larger school complexes. These latter new facilities are large enough to house all the children formerly enrolled in three or four smaller schools and incorporate distinct variations within their physical facilities in order to better accommodate different philosophical positions and organizational schemes under the same roof. The type and degree of planned variation in each attendance area is intended to reflect the degree of difference in thinking about the goals and processes of schools which, in fact, exists among the community in each of these attendance areas. Not only the actual degree of variation then, but the type of options selected and programs designed does and will continue to vary considerably from area to area.

THE CRITICAL FIRST STEP IN TEACHER TRAINING --BETTER ARTICULATION

The delineation of viable alternative programs is a complex and difficult process. Considerable time and effort have been taken by both school and college personnel to better articulate some of the fundamental value differences about the process of schooling. The specific implications of these different value positions have been outlined not only in terms of differences in expectations for children, but also in terms of differences in physical environment, use of time, staffing patterns, curriculum design, and teacher behavior. The position taken by both the schools and the college through the Center is that the education professions have a basic responsibility for better articulating what school options and teaching models are possible. This articulation is a cornerstone concept of responsive schools and responsible teacher training.

One cannot simply ask the community what it wants. The idea that well articulated alternatives generally emanate from some united groundswell of parents and community determined to have more choice is naive. Too often "grass roots" initiated alternative school efforts have lacked the genuine support of the participating professionals, the resources of the school system, and needed teacher training. The result has been rather ill-defined alternatives scattered here and there. Choice is a rather limited concept in these cases and certainly not a prerogative of everyone in the school system. Rather, those parents most knowledgeable, vocal, or organized force change -- not choice. The translation of differences in value orientation into specific operational dimensions of schooling that are understandable and consistent with that position is only the initial step. A continuing dialogue must follow reflecting a degree of school/community interation only rarely attempted in public education. The actual identification of what variations, if any, are actually desired and feasible is a long and arduous process-- to say nothing of implementing them. It would be erroneous to suggest here that the Teacher Center has effected such a utopian state. Obviously, it has not. It has, however, squarely confronted the problem. Existing value differences about what elementary schools might do and how they might do it have been more clearly defined and school programs which more explicitly reflect desired differences are evolving. Building the foundation for more context specific teacher training has definitely begun. An overview of the Teacher Center which has supported these activities follows.

THE MINNEAPOLIS SCHOOLS/UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA TEACHER CENTER

The Center was formally established through a contractual relationship between the Board of Regents of the University of Minnesota and the Board of Education, Minneapolis Public Schools in July of 1973. The mutual concern for effective teacher training, both pre- and in-service which contributed to this more focused and formalized effort by the two systems was discussed earlier. The center serves the following general functions on behalf of the two systems.

It serves first of all as a multi-faceted delivery system for training programs in teacher education. In this role common priorities of the two systems are identified and then addressed by projects and programs of in-service, pre-service and curriculum development. When possible, all three of these activities are related.

One example of a curriculum area of mutual concern may help articulate this bridging between systems. The Minneapolis schools have a need for on-site instructional leadership as they move toward defining and implementing more distinct variations in the schools' programs. The college has a basic need to amplify its teacher training capability. The development of leadership training programs by the Center in which both teachers and administrators increased their ability to train other teachers addresses both the former and latter need. This mutuality of interest is extended in several ways by other teaching role modifications and curricular-role variations evolving out of this development. Thus, multiple opportunities for the college to engage in research and development in teacher training are facilitated in this manner. The Center initiates many of these activities between the systems by assuming a "brokerage" role where there is a trade-off of personnel and resources. Other activities are developed and supported through special funding resources of the Center provided by the parent institutions, with some support from the National Institute of Education.

In a second role, the Center provides a resource facility which both school and college faculty, administrators, community, students and others can utilize at their discretion. Through both informal and intentional contacts between members of these groups, new ideas germinate and new solutions to problems are found.

The lounge-like setting of the Center contains several reference and teaching resources which teachers, students, professors, and community members may avail themselves of. A variety of activities ranging from guest speakers to open forums on current issues serves to bring this cross section of people into the Center. It is not unusual on any given day to see a variety of people from the various systems sharing their ideas with one another. While on most occasions this interaction remains at the sharing level, projects ranging from the development of a new course for teaching to more complicated program proposals have evolved from the personal relationships formed or solidified at the Center.

In addition to the two major purposes listed above, the Center is, itself, an experiment in organizational governance and differentiated staffing. The resources of the Center are in much greater control by the clientele of the Center than would be the case in most organizations. One example of this is the considerable autonomy provided an elected committee for distributing in-service resources to teachers, aides, administrators and community. This sub-system of the Center relates specifically to the needs of personnel in the Southeast Alternatives Program and its school community. This system of alternative schools was originally funded by the National Institute of Education, Experimental Schools Program. Yet other programmatic resources are under the policy direction of a joint Teacher Center Board made up of professors, teachers and community persons.

The Center is staffed with public school teachers and administrators, university faculty and community personnel. Because of the emphasis on collaborative approaches to program and staff development there is a relatively flat hierarchical pattern in the organizational structure of the Center. The Director of the Center, currently a public school person with considerable expertise and experience in both program design and personnel training, devotes as much energy to these activities as he does to the organization and management of the Center. The Director works with three different groups in the rather unique governance structure employed in the Center.

First, there is an Administrative Committee made up of two Deputy Superintendents from the schools and two Associate Deans from the college. While this committee is empowered with final review of all major policy and program decisions, it functions primarily as an advisory body to the Teacher Center Board and the Director. The make-up of this committee insures that power people in the larger organizational structure of both systems remain involved on a continuing basis. The unique perspectives these people have in terms of the needs of their respective systems provide helpful parameters in which more specific action priorities may be decided by others. Perhaps most importantly, this committee provides influential persons in both systems with more insight into each other's operations and the opportunity over time to explore what working relationships are feasible and appropriate and which ones are not. At this point there appears to be a considerable willingness to transcend historical perspectives and risk new relationships.

The Teacher Center Board is an eight-member body appointed by the Dean of the College of Education and the Superintendent of Schools. Its current membership is comprised of two college Departmental Chairpersons, two professors, two teachers, one counselor and one parent. This Board has broad policy and program responsibility for the Teacher Center. They select the Director who is on annual appointment and with this person they review and approve the goals and objectives of the Center. Their major responsibility, however, is to review proposals jointly submitted by personnel from both systems for programmatic development in teacher training or school renewal through curricular or instructional development. They have an annual budget of $100,000, contributed jointly by the college and school to support such developmental efforts. Guidelines for their decision-making as well as an example of the type of program they sponsor will be illustrated more fully later in this paper. The point emphasized here is that this Board is responsible for facilitating major programmatic efforts. This teacher center, unlike many others, serves as more than a response mechanism to individual teachers. It also focuses upon the larger question of what is needed and desired in school and program renewal--the context which in many respects defines priorities for the individual teacher. The center attempts to maintain a balance between advocacy and response.

Finally, there is an In-service Committee which makes decisions about programs, resources, materials and services desired by staff and community in the Southeast Alternatives Schools where the Teacher Center is located. Decisions about these services rest with a thirteen-member committee elected and representative of the SEA area. Membership includes seven teachers, one administrator, three parents and two college faculty. The chairperson is a teacher on one-year assignment to the Center. He or she has major responsibility for implementing an extensive needs assessment process (which will be detailed later), coordinating the committees' activities and monitoring the budget for these services. Currently these monies, about $75,000, are part of NIE's Experimental Schools contribution. As new Centers are evolving in other parts of the city, however, a similar decision-making structure has been set up with teachers assuming primary responsibility for deciding how in-service and curricular monies and services allocated by the Minneapolis System are to be used.

In addition to these three inter-related decision-making bodies, the Center has a core staff of personnel supported jointly by the schools and the college, again with some help from NIE and other external funds which the Center has been able to generate. The following is a brief description of roles and responsibilities within the Center:

University of Minnesota/Minneapolis Public Schools
Teacher Center Personnel

Director: Administrator of the Center - chairs Teacher Center Board - coordinates staff services and functions

Secretary: Office manager - receptionist - secretary to Director - knows UM and Minneapolis personnel

Typist: Clerical - works with both EXCHANGE project and Center staff

Community Resource Coordinator: Coordinates Community Resource Volunteer staff who serve buildings, community and Teacher Center

Clinical Coordinator: Coordinates all student teachers, interns and other placements for trainees in SEA schools - Liaison to UM faculty and departments

Clinical Coordinator Social Workers: Coordinates (0.5) placement of social worker interns; trainer

Curriculum Specialists (5): Science, Industrial Arts, Language Arts, Creative Arts, Mathematics Resource teachers for SEA schools - serve as curriculum specialists and trainers for on-site workshops; assist teachers and others in identifying other training needs and assessing appropriate training programs and materials

In-service Coordinator: Coordinates all SEA in-service activity - chairs In-service Committee and serves that committee in a staff role - serves in planning/development of Teacher Center programs

Program Development Specialist/Schools: Directs (0.5) THE EXCHANGE, a project for diffusion of successful NIE/OE sponsored projects throughout Southeast Minnesota and the Larger Metropolitan Area. Provides program services to Teacher Center (0.5) via training and other coordinating services - with special attention to The Open School

Staff/Program Development Specialist/College: Develops training programs and conducts special training for MPS personnel; develops program linkages to colleagues in UM; functions in advisory role to Director in program development at all levels. Serves as a special liaison to NIE and OE personnel in Washington, D.C.

Dissemination Coordinator: Develops dissemination strategies and does training related to programs for THE EXCHANGE facilitation project

Principals on Special Assignment (3): As leadership trainees they will assist in a variety of activities and Center functions working with various staff members on a wide variety of topics

Fiscal Coordinator: Processes all financial transactions; maintains accounts and budgets; arranges travel and accommodations; participates in planning and development activities; also assumes training responsibilities when time available

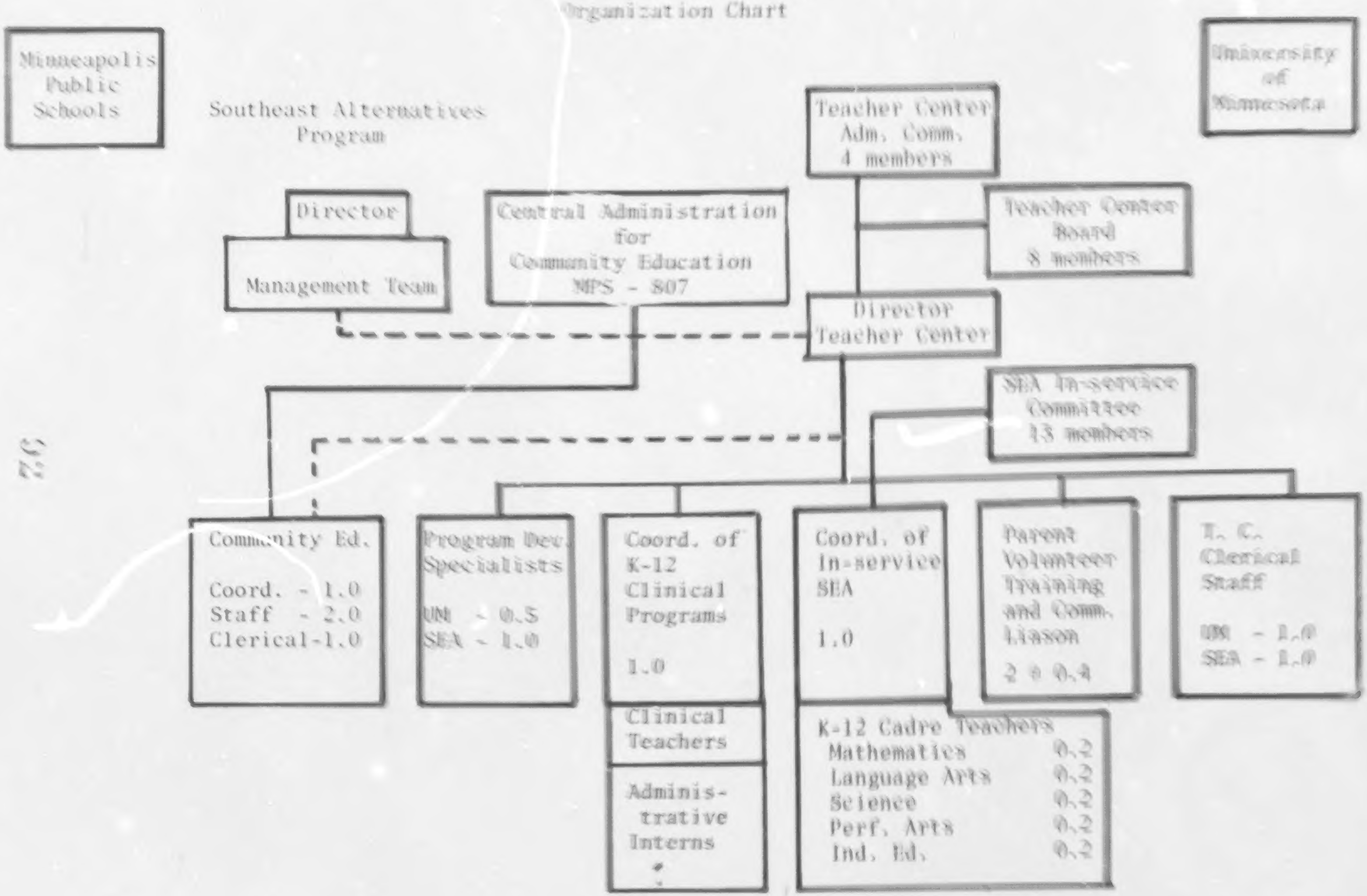
Open School Trainer: Assists both teachers in larger Minneapolis system and University of Minnesota faculty with transition to open classrooms

Community Education Director: Coordinates/develops all community education programs and classes for SEA area

Community Education Staff (2)

The organization of the Center is represented schematically in Figure 2. The functions of each of the decision-making bodies have been brief-

Figure 2
MPS/UM TEACHER CENTER
Organization Chart


Minneapolis Public Schools
Southeast Alternatives Program
University of Minnesota
Teacher Center Adm. Comm. 4 members
Teacher Center Board 8 members
Director
Management Team
Central Administration for Community Education MPS - 807
Director Teacher Center
SEA In-service Committee 13 members
Community Ed.
Coord. - 1.0
Staff - 2.0
Clerical-1.0
Program Dev. Specialists
UM - 0.5
SEA - 1.0
Coord. of K-12 Clinical Programs
1.0
Clinical Teachers
Adminis-trative Interns
Coord. of In-service SEA
1.0
K-12 Cadre Teachers
Mathematics 0.2
Language Arts 0.2
Science 0.2
Perf. Arts 0.2
Ind. Ed. 0.2
Parent Volunteer Training and Comm. Liason
2 @ 0.4
T. C. Clerical Staff
UM - 1.0
SEA - 1.0

ty outlined, as have the responsibilities of the Director and the In-service Coordinator. The responsibilities of the program development specialist, parent volunteer trainers and cadre teachers will become more clear as specific training activities are described later.

How the partnership venture reflected in this organizational structure achieves its primary goals is outlined in the listing below. The major goals of the Center are reiterated in the column on the left margin, who the target is for these goals is identified in the center and the listing in the right margin provides a fairly concise summary of activities sponsored by the Center which reflect each of these major goals.

Summary Of

Minneapolis Public Schools/University of Minnesota Teacher Center Activities

What Does the Center Do?	Whom Does the Center Serve?	How does the Center Accomplish this?
(1) Provides assistance in changes needed in organizational governance, management practices and participatory roles for all who are involved with, or affected by, the schooling process	-Minneapolis public schools, with special services and programs for the Southeast Alternatives Program (through 1976) faculty, staff, community, students, and administration -College of Education, University of Minnesota faculty, staff, students and administration	-Modeling: the Center's governance provides resources control by the consumers of program services through the Teacher Center Board and the In-service Committee (serving SEA only) -Provides community staff services to insure maximal involvement of community individuals and groups in school programs -Continually conducts leadership development training programs emphasizing participatory leadership

		-Provides school and college leadership internships and residency programs -Provides advocacy intervention in administrative units of MPS and UM
(2)Develops and demonstrates collaborative (IHE/LEA) models in training and renewal of educational personnel and subsequently more collaborative models in instruction of children. The major focus is to articulate and explicate valid educational alternatives.	-Minneapolis Public Schools, with special services and programs for the Southeast Alternatives Program (through 1976) faculty, staff, community, students and administration -College of Education, University of Minnesota, faculty, staff, students and administration	-Program design help and funding of joint (MPS/UM) R & D programs in(pre-service/in-service education, curriculum development (school and college), and research -Facilitate/respond/advocate in-service programs for SEA administration/faculty/staff/students -Provides for support services to community education programs -Provides for more effective placement and clinical training of pre-service teachers
(3) Coordinate, develop and further acquire resources to facilitate the organizational development of the parent institutions	-Minneapolis Public Schools, its personnel and public clientele -The University of Minnesota College of Education, its faculty, staff and administration	-The staff and administration of the Center maintain multiple agency/personal contacts to identify potential resources; assist in assessing these resources. The Center's Director has primary responsibility for this function

		-Facilitates University personnel in teaching/ self-development/and program coordination with the schools -The Teacher Center serves as a focal point of staff development programming/funding from its parent systems and because of its unique structure is a major focus of external funding efforts for both systems, MPS and UM
(4) The Teacher Center will serve a major role in dissemination of alternative programs and other information: internally to its constituency (schools and University) and externally to a broader education community	-Minneapolis Public Schools, its personnel and public clientele -The University of Minnesota College of Education, its faculty, staff and administration -The State Department of Education, Minnesota -Public and private school personnel of the metropolitan area, state, and national -Teacher education personnel of the colleges and universities - state and national	-Dissemination includes materials, personnel contacts and model transporting. In this latter case it includes design and instruction in management concepts and for the parent institutions, includes personnel services from the Center to train, advise and reinforce new structures.

Those training activities sponsored by the Center which focus specifically on the needs of personnel in open classrooms and schools are addressed next. However, it may be helpful to the reader interested in the broader question of partnership between community, school and college to first briefly review the summary of activities which this author believes a jointly college/school-sponsored teacher center can facilitate. The question of "why a teacher center" will not always solicit convincing responses. The four major activities outlined above may well be of either lesser importance in many areas than they are in Minneapolis or of considerable concern but better confronted in other ways. No strenuous advocacy position is taken here on behalf of teaching centers per se. Structures referred to as centers can embrace a variety of collaborative arrangements ranging from local partnerships to state and regional consortia. On the other hand they may reflect no formal and very little informal collaboration. They serve a variety of purposes and functions and while teacher training and renewal is usually a priority even this is not always the case. The position taken here is that a formalized partnership between a larger school system and a single or limited number of colleges can facilitate the following rather complex tasks:

(1) the identification of appropriate and realistic ways in which college(s) of education might assist a school system(s) with needs assessment (program priorities) and role analyses (teacher effectiveness in these programs); both of these activities are essential to more accurately determine training needs, both pre-and in-service;

(2) the identification of appropriate and realistic ways in which a school system(s) and its personnel might provide input into pre-servicetraining models in the college(s);

(3) assistance to both the school system and the college in relating initial training to continuing training;

(4) the identification of appropriate and realistic ways in which a college of education might contribute to the transitional and continuing phases of teacher renewal in the school system(s);

(5) assistance in systematically reviewing the combined training resources of both the college(s) and the system(s) to identify possible complementary, shared, and pooled personnel resources. Joint appointments, rotating assignments and shared facilities can be achieved through the teacher center concept;

(6) determination of existing personnel from both personnel resources who might be assigned periodically for external auditing or summative evaluation of one another's programs, possibly on a trade-off basis;

(7) assistance in the coordinated placement of personnel resources from various college and school training programs such as psychology, administration, curriculum and teaching into specific school settings in order to explore concentrated, "critical

mass," approaches to program and staff renewal;

(8) the generation of monies quite possibly not available to either system independent of the other;

(9) the development of short-term critical problem-solving task forces made up of personnel from both systems to intensively respond to crises; personnel could be placed on a rotating on-call basis so that a small "blue-ribbon" group could devote three to ten solid days to a major problem if needed.

TRAINING FOR OPEN CLASSROOMS AND SCHOOLS

The open school concept in Minneapolis, at least as reflected in the first open school developed at Marcy, was modeled in many ways after the more progressive British Primary Schools which have evolved over the last quarter century. While several embellishments and modifications quite naturally have been made the school is consonant with many of the British schools in that its curriculum is experience-based and child-centered. Functional approaches to learning skills are stressed and embodied in self-managed, individualized instructional format whenever possible. Marcy began its transition to an Open School in 1971, and in many respects is still engaged in this developmental process. The ability to effectively set goals with youngsters, produce a diverse, exciting and responsive learning environment, integrate curricula and truly personalize instruction are complex and bedeviling challenges. Regardless of the label assigned a school, such challenges are not easily mastered in a short time, however committed and resourceful the persons involved may be.

Certainly, there was considerable effort in arriving at consensus between staff and community on what the basic tenets of an open school were. Many, many hours went into articulating what "open" stood for and just "how open" Marcy would be. Fundamental goals and operating principles were hammered out over many meetings between staff and parents. A brief listing of some of these overreaching goals and principles agreed upon should further elucidate the nature of open classrooms for which teachers were trained in Minneapolis.

Marcy Open School Goals for Children

(goal statements were also developed for parents. staff and administrators)

(1) We want boys and girls to read, write and deal with mathematical concepts confidently and effectively. We hope the way in which children gain these skills

enables them to enjoy reading, writing and using numbers, and that they use these skills often.

(2) We expect children will take increasing responsibility for their own learning in all areas--social, physical and academic.

(3) We would like children to learn to make decisions and solve problems individually and in groups.

(4) We hope children will increase their understanding and respect of their individual rights and the rights of others.

(5) We hope that children can talk about their fears, mistakes and feelings with confidence.

(6) We hope girls and boys become aware of how they act, understand how their behavior affects other people, and feel it is okay to be open and honest.

Marcy Curricular Principles

The following principles govern the curriculum of the School:

(1) Curriculum is personalized. It evolves from the interests, needs and maturity of individual children and is not a set course of study delivered to the children.

(2) Curriculum is organized to allow the child freedom and responsibility to recognize and pursue his or her own needs and interests.

(3) Curriculum emphasizes an integrated, interdisciplinary approach including experiences outside the school.

(4) Curriculum stresses the process of learning and problem solving rather than the acquisition of specific prescribed content.

(5) Curriculum emerges from the first-hand involvement of children with other people, places, ideas and materials.

(6) Curriculum is designed to build academic skills in such a way that the process enhances personal growth and development.

Excerpts from a recent description of the Open School intended to provide parents of prospective students with a concise but graphic description of the program in operation illustrate how some of the above principles have been translated into action.

> Marcy Open School is designed to promote a child's social and emotional development without neglecting basic learning skills. Students and teachers at Marcy are grouped in "families" that operate in an informal environment.
>
> Instead of the usual classroom, a family occupies two rooms and the hall space between them. Rows of desks have been replaced by tables and chairs of varying sizes, low dividers, and open floor space to accommodate changing projects and allow the child to choose the place where he works best.
>
> Most families are composed of two teachers, a varying number of aides and about fifty-five children. Four of the families include children ages five through eleven. A fifth family is made up of five through eight-year-olds.
>
> Children are taught according to their current ability rather than by age groups and value is placed on all kinds of abilities....
>
> Family centers provide children with an opportunity to experiment with a variety of materials and equipment. Each classroom area is composed of moveable learning centers that can be converted at any time to suit a new interest. Teachers encourage children to investigate the materials around them and to assist each other. Whether a child is trying to thread a sewing machine, mix paints or set a typewriter margin, someone is ready to help him.
>
> Every family, for example, has a science center that abounds in rocks, fossils, plant life and small animals. Gerbils, snakes, guinea pigs, and frogs provide an opportunity for the study of life and growth cycles. As the seasons change, science centers expand to include outdoor studies and ecology projects....
>
> "Whole school" centers housing special equipment and instructions are used by all the families at Marcy. A media center combines library facilities with listening tapes, film strips and recording equipment. The "librarian" introduces children to a variety of learning media which she encourages them to use at their own skill levels.
>
> Hammer Hall, the industrial arts center located in a basement room, is equally popular with girls and boys. Countless birdfeeders, doll houses and racing cars are turned out annually to be patiently sanded, painted, and finally taken home.
>
> Photography students, who operate their own darkroom in a converted closet, sometimes provide photos for the SEA newspaper. Students also do their own script writing and broadcasting for the school radio station.

After the Marcy Open School had been in Operation for one year personnel involved were in a better position to assess what it was they actually needed in the way of further training. Additionally, teachers now had a year's time to acclimate to what for many of them was a relatively dramatic and difficult departure from former practices. Initial concerns and anxieties were considerably reduced. This writer spent the majority of that second year, 1972-73, as a participant-observer in the open school. The primary purpose of this effort was not only to better assess what assistance teachers new to an open environment felt they needed but to systematically observe and analyze what teachers were in fact doing differently in this setting. Cooperation from the Marcy staff was excellent, due in some respects to the fact that the author and other colleagues who assisted in this analysis were involved in the school enough to be sensitive to the problems of teachers and willing to work on-site in resolving those problems.

On the basis of this exploratory work a joint proposal was submitted to the Teacher Center Board for an interrelated program of pre- and in-service training for open classroom teachers. The project was funded in the spring of 1973, and intensive planning for what was creatively termed Project Open commenced immediately. A working committee of professors and teachers who had been engaged in the initial development of the school and/or the second-year needs and role analyses began to develop curricula for training open school teachers. The following skills and competencies, while not unique to open classroom teaching, were definitely high priority needs. The fact that further assistance was desired by teachers in these areas indicated that more emphasis be placed here than previously had been in more conventional training programs. Priority skills identified for open classroom teachers are listed below.

Priority Goals for Open Classroom Teachers

(1) Teachers should have skill in acquiring information about a student's behavior, interest and activity outside of the school setting.

(2) Teachers should be able to utilize multiple strategies for putting a student into touch with the world outside of school.

(3) Teachers should have skill in making decisions so that they in turn can help students not only make decisions but analyze and evaluate those decisions.

(4) Teachers should understand goal-setting processes with students especially continuing aspects of what is done once goals have been set in terms of reinforcement and completion.

(5) Teachers should have multiple strategies for integrating desired goals in learning activities. Teachers should be able to select organizing centers which integrate cognitive, social and attitudinal concerns simultaneously.

(6) Teachers should have the organizational capability to engage students in multiple learning activities simultaneously.

(7) Teachers should have specific strategies for helping students work effectively in groups since much individualization of instruction will occur in small groups.

(8) Teachers should understand the multiple ways in which space and materials within a room, within a school and on a school campus can be flexibly and continuously arranged to accommodate different types of learning.

(9) Teachers should have specific strategies for recruiting and/or enlisting a variety of support personnel and volunteer resources on a continuing basis. Teachers should have specific skills in getting people to plan and work effectively together in a group.

(10) Teachers should have multiple strategies for observing and analyzing their own structuring and teaching behavior.

(11) Teachers should have multiple strategies for systematically observing and recording in the school environment what choices children make in terms of task, play and social interaction.

(12) Teachers should know of multiple options and numerous strategies they can assume in a continuing learner role.

(13) Teachers should have specific skill in diagnosing the causes of non- or counter-productive behavior in students and specific strategies for intervening and remediating that behavior.

(14) Teachers should have specific skills in assisting students with not only written language skills but oral interpersonal skills.

(15) Teachers should be able to employ multiple strategies for the application of "basic skills" to solving problems. Teachers should understand multiple problem-solving approaches and be able to assist youngsters in an applied skill approach to learning.

College personnel, either with some experience in the British Schools or other more open and individualized instructional systems, had been involved from the beginning in the development of the Southeast Alternatives and especially the Open School. As college faculty they had contributed to what is primarily a school function, the better articulation of responsive and viable options for the public to select from. The professors brought needed skills to bear on this difficult process, however. They assisted in the selection, design, and development of a number of tools and techniques which helped both parents and staff clarify different approaches to the process of schooling. They also assisted them in making choices about appropriate options and contributed to the explication of goal statements and operating principles. And finally, when the programs were initiated they provided some on-site training and support.

This is not to say that they were the spear carriers or the leaders in any respect -- they were not. There were, in fact, many times when they were more willing than able. The major point here is that their time and effort were justified not only because they often were helpful to the school and community and fulfilled a service commitment by the college, but rather because it was the first critical step in planning for variation in teacher training for different teaching roles. Not only did the college from its perspective now have planned variation in its clinical setting, it had good working relationships with the practitioners in that setting as well.

The open school pre-service training program was not to be designed only by professors, just as the school programs had not been decided solely by the practicing professional. The project was a joint effort of college and school personnel not only in the planning but in the actual operation. A very real commitment was made by the school in response to the assistance it had received from the college, a commitment facilitated by the existence of the Teacher Center. A basic concern was how to release the two outstanding teachers who had been selected to participate in the training of pre-service teachers from some of the responsibilities in the open school. The solution to this problem was the interface between the pre- and in-service training.

The primary financial request in the basic plan submitted to the Teacher Center Board was to underwrite the expenses of a cadre of highly competent continuing substitute teachers. Each quarter six teachers in the larger Minneapolis System were released to do a ten-week internship at the Marcy Open School. These teachers were selected on (1) the basis of their leadership potential and (2) their commitment to move into an open learning environment when a system or array of alternatives was scheduled to be operationalized in their school community. These internships consisted of observation, teaching and training. There were no major problems in scheduling these experienced and highly qualified intern-teachers into a teaching schedule at the Open School that released the selected open school teachers. They could then team teach with the college faculty and the pre-service teachers in the Teacher Center.

While the focus in this paper is on in-service education, a few words about the pre-service project may be helpful, especially since experienced or in-service personnel played such a key role in it. Planning between teachers and professors took place in the spring and summer of 1973. Planning for the training program utilized the needs assessment and role analyses data. The following general principles guided the development of the program.

Project Open Program Principles

(1) That the faculty "model" as much as possible open instructional techniques.

(2) That the student be exposed to a "1,000 slices of schooling" as early as possible in his training programs, that he taste fully of the real world of education, from classrooms to school board meetings.

(3) That the student's learning be personalized and individualized as much as possible. That learning experiences be developed which have multiple entry points, learning paths, and exit points. That modules or courses contain flexible time boundaries.

(4) That students have more formal opportunities to negotiate and choose with respect to what and how they learn.

(5) That more explicit performance criteria for evaluation be developed and negotiated between faculty and students.

(6) That the student be exposed to more interdisciplinary planning and teaching within areas in the college and between the college and the schools. That more genuine dialogue and debate be openly demonstrated for and engaged in with students.

(7) That students have in-depth experience in open school settings.

(8) That students be engaged as often as possible in the decision-making process of the program.

(9) That advanced graduate students in counseling psychology be incorporated into the program as process observers to facilitate a range of on-going student/faculty instructional formats.

(10) That continuing and coordinated laboratory-clinical experiences be incorporated into the program.

(11) That continued, close affiliation with a professor and a classroom teacher be arranged to insure maximal understanding of and support for each student throughout the project.

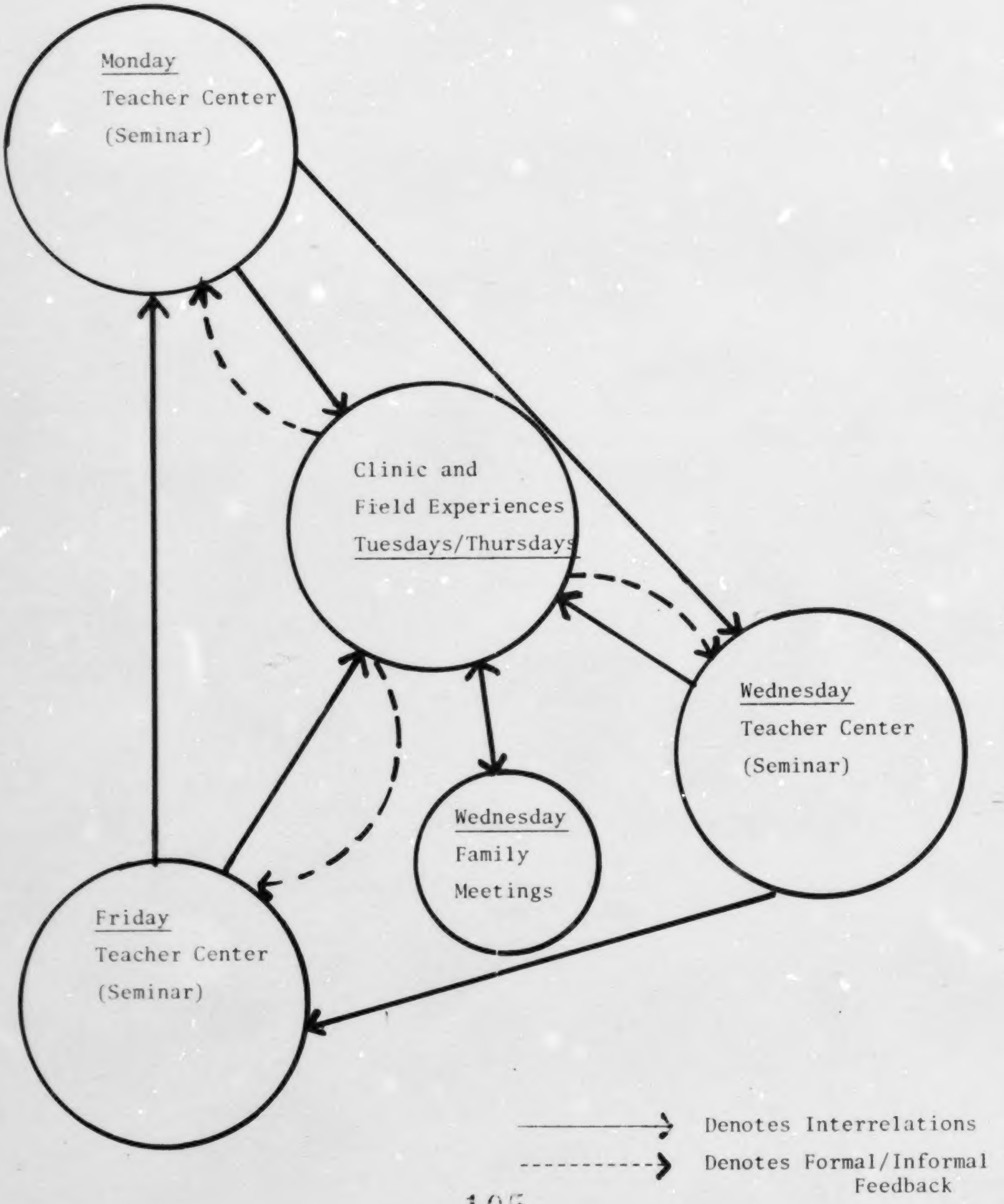
Some of the more distinctive elements of the program were the attempt to use such processes as goal setting, record keeping, maintaining a flexible physical environment and interrelating curriculum as organizers for study, as well as the more traditional discipline oriented course organizers such as math, science and reading. A second basic modification was to have the students work with curriculum specialists in an area such as physical science on a recurring basis over six quarters rather than three times a week for one quarter. The facility utilized in the Teacher Center also soon took on many of the characteristics of an open classroom. At least one teacher was available to work together with professors in the instructional activities held in the Center every Monday, Wednesday and Friday afternoon. (The earlier contributions of college faculty did much to induce the support of both parents and fellow teachers in having the selected teachers regularly leave the classroom to work with pre-service teachers. The same could be said for their willingness to work with them as students, first on a bi-weekly basis and eventually on a daily basis.) All day Tuesday and Thursday were spent in the Open School. The in-service teachers who came into the Center to teach took the pre-service teachers back out into their own classrooms with them. Not only was an excellent integration of study and practice achieved in this way but also continuity and consistency, as the principles discussed in the Center were modeled by these same teachers in the classroom. Figure 3 illustrates this organizational scheme.

THE IN-SERVICE COMPONENT

The experienced teachers selected for the internships in the Marcy Open School engaged in a variety of activities during this ten-week experience. They took part in a number of structured observations in order to analyze patterns of movement and behavior in the classroom. They assumed both focused and total teaching responsibility. They were involved in weekly seminars, where many of the same activities and materials designed and developed for the pre-service teachers in the project were also appropriate to their needs.

Figure 3

PROJECT OPEN-PROGRAM STRUCTURE


Monday
Teacher Center
(Seminar)
Clinic and
Field Experiences
Tuesdays/Thursdays
Wednesday
Teacher Center
(Seminar)
Wednesday
Family
Meetings
Friday
Teacher Center
(Seminar)
Denotes Interrelations
Denotes Formal/Informal Feedback

This relatively short experience had an effect that in many ways paralleled that of the Open School teachers after their first year of teaching. On the one hand, there was now a greater commitment to this type of instruction--in most instances anyway--while on the other hand, there was a much greater awareness of the difficulty of the task and a desire for more extended training. The request of these interns for continued training and support served as a catalyst for the Director and core staff at the Center to plan with both school and college personnel a more comprehensive program for in-service teachers who would assume leadership roles in the transition to more explicit school and program alternatives. The in-service experiences which would be provided these teachers would hopefully allow them in turn to facilitate quality in-service for their fellow teachers.

Staff at the Center were committed to the concepts outlined earlier in this paper. They felt in-service teacher education should focus upon the specific instructional needs of teachers, especially when those needs were rooted in and consonant with a coherent and explicitly defined school program. The staff identified what they thought were conditions which would contribute to the realization of more responsive and functional in-service teacher education. If in-service teacher education was to become more of a daily activity and an integral aspect of the schooling process, what would be needed? A number of critical ingredients were envisioned for this type of in-service to become more of a reality. First, teaching should ideally be engaged in by teams or small support groups of teachers who are highly differentiated in their roles but at the same time complementary to one another with respect to the totality of their responsibility. They would also, regardless of differences in role and responsibility, be committed philosophically to the same ideals, goals and purposes. Second, the conditions necessary for such teams to interact together effectively must exist. More obvious examples would be reasonable numbers of students, adequate time, appropriate space, and training in working together. Third, these teams should be provided visible, on-line, continuing leadership. Someone who could not only provide a daily model of instructional skill but who could intervene in their actions as well, on a continuing basis, is needed. In summary, the following conditions were identified for more authentic continuing in-service and program renewal:

(1) more reasonable expectations for most teachers,

(2) more differentiated and complementary support roles among teachers working together,

(3) more sophisticated instructional leadership assumed by teachers selected because of their teaching competency and trained in instructional leadership and change strategies,

(4) more sophisticated skill training in working together for small instructional units of teachers who are, in fact, working together,

(5) more sophisticated skill training in and emphasis on collaborative planning and structuring diverse learning environments and less emphasis on "interactive teaching" as the primary role expectation of teachers,

(6) more sophisticated strategies for observing various dimensions of teaching and learning behavior and skill in sharing those observations with one another as a primary means of improving one's teaching,

(7) more sophisticated skills and strategies for collecting data about what is happening in all dimensions of the school process.

While the Center was in no position to effect the rather utopian state suggested by the above conditions, it could begin by infusing the system with people committed to those ideals and with some skill in moving others towards them.

It was assumed that the ideal person to intitiate change in any system is (a) experienced and knowledgeable about the present system, (b) aware of possible alternatives to that system, (c) sophisticated in the process of change, and finally, (d) committed to the idea that the change will improve what presently exists. In many cases this person could be a teacher who by sharing teaching responsibilities with other teachers could also assume instructional leadership-- in a limited sphere. There is a major underlying assumption in this "in-service in the context of school renewal" concept. It posits that the more the scope of a plan for change or renewal expands beyond a visible program unit such as a team of teachers or perhaps an entire school-- if it, in fact, has a cohesive and interrelated program-- then the more likely it is to fail. Interrelated school renewal is best effected in relatively small units of four to eight people.

The primary goal of this training program then was to provide highly competent teachers with the additional skills and abilities needed to better monitor and manage the multiple dimensions of an instructional program with delimited boundaries and explicit foci. In most cases program renewal and attendant staff development or in-service training is attempted by a variety of administrators, specialists, and consultants. These diverse efforts, however, are usually one-dimensional in emphasis. A specific curriculum adoption, for example, is only partially related to needed teaching skills, or space or even to other curricula. Rarely are changes made in the context of a more consistent and coherent school program. The basic strategy selected then to achieve more coherent school programs and also to provide continuing in-service was to identify and train competent teachers. Teachers who could better insure program goals were reflected consistently and in an interrelated way, when decisions about time, space, materials and grouping were made. There were no illusions about a new "super change agent" nor was there any intent to dismiss the quality contributions of many skilled consultants. There was the hope for more on-line leadership within limited spans of control.

Funding was generated through the Center to support the training of teachers for this role during both the 1974-75 school year and the following summer. Teachers had to be recommended by their building administrators and priority for admission to this training program was given to those schools who were about to make or engage in a transition to a new program structure and who would enroll a team of teachers and their principal in the project. The program identified the following as major problems to be confronted initially: (1) a better articulation and explication of just what distinct alternative school programs might be emanating both from different emphases in values and concommitant differences in learner goals, as well as from different desired means for attaining similar goals; and (2) the development of better tools and strategies for (a) orienting teachers, students and community to the different options possible, (b) assessing the different needs and interests of teachers, students and community, and (c) matching these choices against available resources.

The following skill clusters were identified as possible outcome objectives for the participants in the program to select from:

Needs Assessment Skills: A focus upon the understanding and use of explicit alternative school prototypes and program components to assist both community and fellow professionals in selecting any desired and needed program variations.

Community Interaction Strategies: A focus upon process skills appropriate to initiating and maintaining a dialogue between community/school/college.

Task and Role Analyses Skills: A focus upon more clearly identifying and analyzing the range of demands upon a teacher and how these define that teacher's role. Strategies for engaging in analyses of what a teacher actually is doing, contrasting this with what he would like to do and, finally, assisting him or her in changing his current role.

Behavior Analysis Skills: A focus upon a range of tools and strategies for systematically describing different dimensions of teacher-learner behavior. The participant is trained to systematically collect data on such school occurrences as communication patterns, social interactions, cognitive patterns, non-verbal behavior, and student interaction with the environment.

Staff Differentiation Strategies: A focus upon explicating alternative teaching roles for teachers such as diagnostic models, inquiry models, counseling/group process models, materials/resource development models, or technologist/didactic models. Identification of specific teaching competencies needed in these roles and available training materials for acquiring these are part of this process.

Staff Collaboration Strategies: A focus upon the refinement of general communication and curricular decision-making skills in teams. Also included are such pragmatic functions as identifying the different types of meetings necessary for planning, evaluative reporting and self-renewal and the ways in which times can be found to engage in these activities on a continuing basis throughout the school day.

Data Collection and Evaluation Strategies: A focus upon what types of data need to be collected on a continuing basis and how teachers, students, community and other resource people can be engaged in collecting, recording, storing and using that formative data to make program decisions.

The format for the training program was a year-long series of weekly small group meetings in the Center with a variety of follow-up activities occurring in the participants' schools. The thirty-five participants were made up primarily of three or four teachers and a principal from the same school, but individual teachers were included in the program as well. The total group was often broken down into smaller working groups reflecting the level and type of program they were involved in, for example, elementary open classrooms or middle school integrated curricula. The participants were further broken down when possible into teams of teachers from the same school or program. The project was oriented toward the resolution of actual problems in their own schools as framed by the priorities outlined earlier in the overview of project purposes. Core staff from the Center were assigned to both the role-alike groups and the teams and worked with the trainees not only in the Center but in the schools as well. The project, or at least this initial phase of the project, is just now being completed, and while it is too early to adequately guage its impact, some current impressions about this in-service component as well as the pre-service training can be shared. What has this programmatic effort contributed to the parent institutions which sponsored it through the Teacher Center?

School System Benefits

(1) The school system has had considerable input in assuring that both pre- and in-service training components sponsored by the college are tied to the needs and problems of evolving programs and new roles in the schools.

(2) The school system now has a number of key people with a broader understanding of the problems encountered in the transition to more open formats. A number of the original teacher interns have formed support groups with three or four other teachers and their building administrator, and are continuing to meet on a regular basis to confront program and staff development problems. This continuing developmental effort was again funded by the Teacher Center and has been built into a credited graduate training program by the college.

(3) The school system has some beginning training and assessment materials in the area of open education appropriate to the needs of its personnel.

(4) The school system has access to beginning teachers with considerable experience in and orientation to open classroom teaching.

College Benefits

(1) The college now has a number of instructors with a greater sensitivity to the needs of teachers in a context specific instructional setting.
The college has some new training and curriculum materials.
The college has a model for a more diversified training format incorporating

practitioners into the teaching as well as the supervisory component of a pre-service program.

(2) The college has experimented with another program option to offer pre-service teachers.

(3) The college has responded in an appropriate and most functional way to the question of governance in teacher education by involving teachers in needs assessment, curriculum development, and instructional decision-making.

Parity is a critical concept in a jointly funded and administered teacher center. But parity is more than equal representation in policy making. It must be reflected in mutual benefits, probably not otherwise achieved, for both systems, in terms of their programs and staffs. Collaboration which achieves this type of trade-off responds to the essence of parity.

College/school partnerships, where the primary focus is what role the college can assume in assisting with the continuing education needs of experienced teachers in order to maintain numbers in its programs, are unfortunately limiting. In the crassest sense this often becomes primarily a trade-off of bodies for credit hours. Parity is little more than an economic principle in this type of relationship. When, however, college personnel are willing to get their "hands dirty" in clarifying with both community and teachers what is needed and desired within their school programs, they are beginning with the cornerstone of teacher training. Until and unless this happens, colleges cannot expect school personnel to contribute more to beginning teacher education than a general monitoring of student teachers. The joint programmatic effort described here illustrates the multiple trade-offs generated when the training of educational personnel is approached in the context of school renewal, especially explicit program variation.

The obvious bias of the writer and many of his colleagues in the Center is that such planned program variation is critical. Not only should such a process be more responsive to legitimate differences in the community, but from a teacher training perspective it should also provide more delimited, consistent and realistic teacher roles. The fundamental question of what is an effective or competent teacher will not be easily resolved in any event. But, if more serious attention is not given to (1)what are fundamental, yet legitimate, differences in expectations for schools and teachers in those schools,as well as to(2) what is a reasonable teaching-- as opposed to maintenance --role then the inquiry may well be futile.

This paper has focused upon an interrelated program effort which is an attempt, as stated at the outset of this paper, "to meet the needs and problems of teachers which are peculiar to a specific school situation" and explicit school philosophy. This paper does not allow adequate documentation of the many other diverse approaches to in-service training conducted within the Center. The writer would be remiss, however, if he did not at least make mention of several of the more substantive efforts in this direction. The interested reader may receive more complete descriptions of these activities upon request to the Center.

The In-service Committee has developed a comprehensive needs assessment procedure for each of the schools and school communities in the Southeast Alternatives System. Both collective as well as individual needs are inventoried. The assessment process examines not only what is needed and/or desired but the type of training model desired, and who might best provide services and when. A liaison person from the Center is assigned to each school and plays a critical role in insuring an effective response to each school's needs. The liaison person to Marcy Open School served in this capacity not as a professional educator but as a skilled community person. The Community Day Program instituted at the Open School was part of the negotiation process with the In-service Committee and serves as an excellent illustration of the type of activity sponsored by this group. This rather remarkable program frees teams of teachers at regular intervals for an entire day which they can devote to in-service and program renewal activities. In turn, the children under their tutelage are supervised by a few professionals and a number of trained volunteers in activities in the community. Not only do the children learn from these experiences but often they make a real contribution in terms of some expression of community renewal such as landscaping, cleaning or painting. This is one of the more ambitious projects evolving out of the In-service Committee format, as it has responded to a broad range of parent and teacher needs ranging from purchase of specific materials, underwriting expenses at a conference or designing an on-going, on-site workshop.

Another strategy which the Center utilizes in responding to teachers' in-service needs is the Cadre or Teacher Center Resource Team. Specialists in the more conventional school curriculum areas of reading and mathematics have worked extensively with teachers in the open schools to provide on-site models of teaching as well as multiple materials and resources which reflect more functional and integrated approaches to skill development. They have combined forces with a specialist in the creative arts, another in developmental counseling and two resource teachers with expertise and experience in open classroom teaching. This team has focused upon the multiple dimensions of child development and the specific application of these in teaching. They have developed training procedures where developmental principles are applied to designing curriculum activities, interest centers and diverse physical environments, as well as the setting of appropriate goals and norms for multi-age youngsters. Again this resource team engages in a needs assessment, and contractual and reciprocal working relationship with teachers which very much reflects the concept of in-service espoused earlier in this paper.

Finally, mention should be made of the Exchange. This is part of USOE's National Diffusion Network. Over one hundred exemplary programs have been cleared by a National Dissemination Board to share their experience with other schools. State Facilitator Projects have been established as regional linking services to assist local districts in exploring cost-effective and exportable materials and resources consonant with their interests and needs. Two of the State Facilitators are housed in the Center. Not surprisingly, they have had extensive experience in the development of open classrooms themselves. In this respect they are uniquely qualified in their role to assist in providing interested schools not only resources and materials, but training as well, for moving to more open instructional systems. Because of their multiple contacts through the larger metropolitan area and state they have been in an ideal position to establish informal networks between schools and school districts with mutual interests and similar problems. They are now exploring a variety of support practices and dissemination techniques throughout the region and state to assist teachers as they move into more open environments.

Because of the multi-faceted approach to teacher training in the Center, more examples could be provided here, but already too much positive has been implied in this paper and there is the danger of the distortion prov[illegible]ed by a publicist approach. Regardless of excellent progress in many respects, the Center, even with considerable support, has had many difficulties as well. Both the latest arrays of alternatives and the satellite center concept designed to facilitate this development have encountered a number of problems. Project Open achieved highly variable degrees of success in the in-service component. While considerable impact could be documented at some school sites, little more than resolution of the primary problems occurred at others. The leadership role for teachers did not emerge as clearly as desired. The undergraduate component, while very effective in most respects, has temporarily been discontinued for reasons of both personnel shifts and further examination of the question of how experimentation in training alternatives can better be achieved. No panaceas have been discovered.

Perhaps the most important contribution of this Center has been that it has demonstrated some principles and processes that, regardless of outcome at this time, warrant dissemination and hopefully broader exploration. Arrays of alternatives, context specific training responses, leadership training for teachers, multiple but interrelated governing structures, clarification of reciprocal roles in training and a balance between the program and the individual are critical concepts in defining and implementing effective in-service. Hopefully, this brief overview of how these concepts have been approached in Minneapolis will facilitate their clarification and development by others.

ISTE

REPORT IV • PART TWO

Changing Realities

JOB-SHARING, LEGISLATION,
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Joyce • Weil • Pais • Warnat

CHANGING REALITIES:
JOB-SHARING, LEGISLATION, EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Bruce R. Joyce
Stanford Center for Research and
Development in Teaching

In this section, Marsha Weil, Ralph Pais, and Winifred Warnat deal with the problems of creative authority from three perspectives. Looking at the changing work world, Weil discusses new job concepts and the use of them to reform the ways we work as teachers, and hence, to affect the way we might deal with our continuing professional education. Pais discusses the current problems in legislation and forecasts alternatives for dealing with inservice legislative and funding questions in ways which will be responsive both to the needs of individual teachers and of the particular communities in which they work. Warnat deals with inservice problems generated by the reach of the school toward the younger and younger child, focusing on the special needs for the re-education of present teachers and for the training of community members and other persons who are being introduced into the educational system and have not hitherto been members of the professional education community.

Weil's paper deals primarily with job-sharing. She approaches the concept of shared jobs in a contemporary mode, stating that whereas the sharing of teaching functions has been hierarchical in the past, with one individual playing the primary role and aides or assistants performing secondary tasks, contemporary concepts of job-sharing permit several persons to occupy professional positions, which are fewer than their number, as equals. In other words, two positions might be shared by three human beings, or three positions by five people, or one position by two people. Weil believes the concept of job-sharing can affect teaching in a variety of ways. First, teaching is such an intense activity that full-time labor at it is emotionally and intellectually fatiguing. Job-sharing, by reducing or changing the burden on the individual, may encourage more productive teaching. Second, teaching is such a complex task that few individuals can maintain full proficiency in all of its aspects. A number of individuals sharing roles would be able to complement one another and piece out the role demands among themselves. Third, if several individuals share jobs, the remainder of their time is freed, not only for leisure, but also for inservice education. If classroom teaching is to continue as a full-time occupation, it is difficult to imagine how the teacher can be released for sustained and intensive inservice work; however, where individuals share jobs, the freeing of time is guaranteed. It may be, in fact, that teachers should spend a portion of their professional time which is freed from teaching participating in inservice activities, and the remainder in developing themselves in their own ways. In summary, Weil points out that as the income producing roles are shared in more and more households, it becomes possible to conceive of a greater variety of professional persons participating in the roles of the teacher. A smaller proportion of time is spent in professional life and, moreover, that time can be divided between professional performance and professional study.

Pais has written an incisive and cogent paper about the problems of inservice legislation. He states that the present legislative picture in most states is relatively chaotic, with very few states having anything approaching a general authority for inservice teacher education, although they do have the responsibility for credentialing teachers and overseeing local school district programs. Pais believes legislation should be created to provide a general authority to the state to institute inservice programs. This issue raises some questions: Should there be policy direction and, hence, control from the state level, or should the state develop general funding authority and allow local education agencies to determine policy? Should there be a uniform state policy which mandates programs of various kinds, or should individual districts develop programs which follow state guidelines?

Pais suggests it may be best for states to have coordinative authority and provide incentive funding for innovative programs to be developed by local agencies and monitored by the state. Alternatively, the legislature could provide funds, directing the executive to develop programs and the policies to control them. A third possibility would be for the legislature to mandate programs as well as specify their nature. The pros and cons of these approaches should be debated and clarified by the states, with an aim toward developing general principles for defining legislative and executive roles in developing inservice teacher education programs.

As Pais points out, there is considerable distinction between the generation of authority for inservice education and the creation of funds to support that authority. In some large states, there are presently many pieces of legislation related to inservice teacher education which are not backed by any funding authority. For example, some states have given local districts the authority to create bilingual/multicultural programs but have not provided the funds to support these programs at the curricular or inservice level.

Another problem discussed by Pais is that of orientation. Specifically, the issue of the credentialing versus the programmatic orientation to inservice teacher education needs to be resolved. The majority of inservice legialation is programmatic in orientation at present; that is, particular programs are funded (such as reading, education of the handicapped, early childhood education, bilingual education) rather than general program authority and funding being granted. The advantage of a general authority is that it essentially requires teachers who wish to maintain their credentials to participate in some form of inservice training. Although numerous forms of orientation exist, the authority to create inservice education should include the authority to require the participation of teachers. At the same time, the authority could permit wide individual discretion as to choosing particular activities in which to participate.

A general legislative problem is that of reconciling the state authority, funding, and monitoring functions and the maintenance of program relevance at the local level. For example, in the area of bilingual education, teachers could be required to develop proficiency in a second language, although this might be totally irrelevant to their individual needs or the needs of the communities they serve. Inservice education must be made relevant to the needs of teachers, and processes must be developed which insure that relevance.

Pais' inquiry reveals that it is very difficult to tell from state budgetary analyses just how much is being spent on inservice teacher education. Often, programmatic legislation specifies that there will be some inservice education, but it fails to provide a proportion of the legislation in that direction, leaving school districts free to spend much or little on the inservice aspects of programs. He suggests that it is difficult to imagine how a new program can be instituted without providing for the professional training of the teachers involved, and yet this is being done again and again.

In conclusion, Pais emphasizes the need for further studies of inservice legislation. These studies should develop legislative models at the federal, state, and local levels, as well as contractual models for local districts to use in developing units of inservice training. Models should be developed which will guide the formulation of inservice legislation so as to give proper regulatory authority to the executive branch, while providing, at the same time, contractual models for local education agencies, teachers, and institutions of higher education to use in developing programs which are appropriately sensitive to local needs.

In her paper, Warnat deals with issues related to early childhood education, pointing out that if, as appears to be the trend, the school is going to extend downward to encompass younger children, two vast inservice problems will immediately arise: Teachers presently working with older children will need to be trained to work more effectively with younger children, and those people presently working in day care centers and other such agencies will need to be brought into the professional community of teachers. The inservice needs of these two groups are different from one another.

Warnat's paper evolved from a conference involving a number of leading educators, representatives from teacher organizations, specialists in early childhood education, and Dr. Floyd Waterman, of the ISTE project staff. All of these people agreed that it is probable that more and more children between the ages of two and four will be brought into the formal education process, and that the generation of appropriate inservice teacher education will be essential to enable new and existing professionals to work together effectively in the new kinds of institutions that will spring up inside school districts to educate younger children.

Weil, Pais, and Warnat have discussed three controversial issues which must be considered by the inservice teacher education enterprise. The need to deal with the issues of new job concepts, inservice legislation, and the formal education of younger children has been expressed by many in the education community. These papers represent a preliminary expose of contemporary ISTE problems which will require a great deal more examination and entail experimentation with and implementation of new ideas.

OVERSUPPLY AS OPPORTUNITY: AN EXPLORATION OF JOB-SHARING AND INSERVICE EDUCATION

Marsha Weil
Stanford Center for Research and
Development in Teaching

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to explore the concept of job-sharing as a vehicle for inservice education. Job-sharing appears to have distinctive advantages which counteract many voiced obstacles to present inservice efforts. My approach is frankly speculative. I have made no effort to document in any detail the history, the problems and issues of this alternative work pattern. My primary intent is to stir the concept of job-sharing into the national literature on inservice education and into the consciousness of policy makers currently considering alternative arrangements for inservice training. Job-sharing is an imaginative idea that I believe merits serious consideration. Any idea that reflects genuine social change runs the simultaneous risks of being superficially attractive because it is different and of being dismissed as too impractical because it involves so much change. I would hate to see this happen to job-sharing, particularly at a time when new institutional arrangements are badly needed, and this is one of genuine promise.

Job-sharing includes two patterns of job allocation:

(1) The first refers to full-time employees sharing a full-time assignment in order to bring greater variety in their vocation, reducing stress and boredom. An example is factory workers rotating assignments. This pattern of job-sharing emphasizes task variation rather than decreased time, although less than full-time work may certainly be a part of this pattern.

(2) The second pattern refers to filling a certain number of full-time positions with more than that number

> of persons. These persons work somewhat less than the full-time work week, but they do not lose the status of responsibility accorded full-time personnel.

Both of these concepts of job-sharing are explored here, with special reference to what they offer for solving some of the problems of inservice training.

Beginning with a conceptual definition of job-sharing, this paper proceeds to develop the case for job-sharing both in the overall employment and career context and in the education profession. Next the paper examines some case studies of job-sharing and the apparent implications of these experiences. Finally, some potential relationships between inservice training and job-sharing are discussed.

WHAT IS JOB-SHARING?

Job-sharing is a general term encompassing many variations in work arrangements. Much of the terminology and distinctions for job-sharing are discussed by P. Dickson in his book The Future of the Workplace.(1) Terms such as "job-splitting," "job-pairing," and "split-level" are all used to describe variations of job-sharing in recent publications.(2) In education, job-sharing bears a strong resemblance to team teaching and differentiated staffing, but the differences, I will discuss later. In this paper the definition of job-sharing which will emerge addresses itself exclusively to the teacher role (as opposed to the paraprofessional or assistant teacher) and to the problems inherent in that role as currently conceptualized. Its aims are to maximize teacher effectiveness and expand the potential of the role for the purpose of inservice education and occupational satisfaction.

Job-sharing as defined here refers to participation in a common role in which one shares equal responsibility for an entire program. Although time is usually thought of as a major feature in job-sharing, I do not feel it is the defining one. Most job-sharing does involve less than full-time work, but job-sharing can occur between full-time employees. The three essential elements as I see them are (1) common roles, (2) equal power and status, (3) equal responsibility for a total program. Job-sharing defined in this way necessarily involves mutual planning and coordination. It involves sharing the emotional aspects of a job as well as the substantive and managerial aspects.

Job sharers can be distinguished from part-time workers because the latter usually have responsibility for only one phase of a program. For example, in education, part-time people are often employed to assist in reading or language groups or to tutor individuals in basic skills. In the upper grades part-time teachers may teach one or two classes in a special subject area. Part-timers in education do not share equal responsibility with the classroom teacher for the total educational program and do not have commensurate power and status. Generally speaking, part-time workers differ from full-time employees in one or more of the following ways: They (1) usually operate from a much lower salary base than full-time workers; (2) do not receive comparable benefits; (3) are not expected to share fully in the responsibilities of the larger institutional framework; (4) are engaged in low paying, low skilled positions, typically having one or two repetitive tasks, i.e. filing, record-keeping, typing, etc.; and (5) do not have the status of full-time workers.

In education, a differentiated staffing organization often has some elements of job-sharing. But frequently, one or two people will have responsibility for the total program with other staff members having less responsibility, lower status and/or isolated segmented tasks. Team-teaching probably comes closest to the concept of job-sharing as I have defined it; however, team teaching is usually available only as full-time employment. In addition, teamed teachers frequently divide responsibilities in such a way that they do not need to collaborate and share mutual responsibilities. Thus, the emotional and substantive advantages brought about by colleagueship in job-sharing are lost. Part-time teaching, differentiated staffing and team-teaching are all valuable work patterns and it is important to continue them. However, they are not exactly the same as job-sharing and cannot accomplish the same function for individuals or for the profession as job-sharing.

As we shall see later in the case material, the types of jobs that have been shared range from classroom teaching and libraries to such specialities as Animal Control Officer and Naturalist; the division of time has ranged from 50%/50% to 80%/20% depending on the needs of the individuals.

THE CASE FOR JOB-SHARING

The idea of job-sharing originally came to my attention in a recent newspaper article. I was immediately attracted to it because I saw the possibility through job-sharing of gaining teachers' time and energy to participate in inservice education. I also saw job-sharing as a means of employing many of the trained teachers who are unable to find teaching positions. I would like to argue that through job-sharing the oversupply of teachers can be utilized to facilitate inservice education and provide new, alternative career patterns in teaching. It is in this sense that I see the present oversupply of teachers as an opportunity rather than a problem. Job-sharing, in other words, could facilitate employment for the unemployed and inservice education for everyone.

Finally, peoples' values concerning work are changing and the meaning of work in their lives is changing. Some people currently employed full-time would like to work fewer hours in order to have more time for leisure or other interests. Women (and men) who want to combine a career with families are interested in sharing professional responsibilities.(3) Finally, the time has passed when people are willing to work at one task, or even one career, for a lifetime. Many people want opportunities for variety in professional responsibilities and multiple careers. I feel that new organization and career patterns must be developed to meet these changes.

Thus far job-sharing has been associated with job shortages and underemployment. This mechanism has been advocated primarily as a means of training and employing formerly disenfranchised populations who have special needs or handicaps. These include housewives entering the labor market for the first time, persons with physical or cultural handicaps, people lacking required skills or people with special time or interest considerations. Job-sharing has not been considered, to my knowledge, in areas where there is an excess of already trained personnel. The trend, instead, has been to place these unemployed in new professions or jobs that draw on their existing skills.

The idea of job-sharing in any field makes three important assumptions about people and work. First, it assumes that there are a number of people who are in a financial position to work for less money or who are willing to sacrifice the money in order to gain other less tangible benefits. Second, job-sharing assumes that there are jobs with sharable tasks and sufficient administrative flexibility to manage the logistics of sharing. Lastly, there is the assumption that people have the interpersonal skills and capacities to co-ordinate, share and together cope with problems that arise. On the whole I think these assumptions are reasonable. Two-career families are becoming increasingly common. Many couples see their partner's earning power as providing flexibility in their own careers. At times, one person may be the major income source and at other times, the situation will be reversed. As a country, there has been, in the last few years, an enormous upsurge in individual consciousness in the personal and interpersonal areas. I think people who are teachers will be responsive to job-sharing as a work alternative.

In addition to these general assumptions, there are other reasons why I see the teaching field as an especially suitable candidate for job-sharing. There are few jobs as complex and demanding as teaching. I can think of no other profession where one individual is assigned to manage, diagnose, organize, instruct and monitor the intellectual, emotional and social development of thirty children simultaneously for a minimum of five hours each day.

During the past seven years many teacher educators have been busy reconceptualizing their training programs. In the process, teacher educators have become acutely conscious of the multiple roles for which we must design training. But few of us, myself included, have ever seriously questioned whether anyone can be expected or should be required to engage in all these roles. My own view is that we are asking teachers to operate in at least four or five professions or subspecialities simultaneously; any one of these jobs would be a challenging career under the best of circumstances, let alone in the context of the average classroom and school day.

The net result of the present job description and expectations for teachers is that most teachers feel overworked and very tired at the end of a day. Although they have little enthusiasm, energy or time left for skill improvement or curriculum development, most teachers feel they are not doing as well as they would like. Non-educators, on the other hand, criticize teaching as ineffective and schools as unimaginative, bureaucratic places. In a recent study a Los Angeles psychiatrist indicated that teachers in inner-city schools are showing stress symptoms of battle fatigue similar to that observed in soldiers during wartime--high blood pressure, depression, headaches, lowered self-esteem, stomach and sleep disturbances. He attributes this to the threats of violence from students coupled with lack of administrative support for the conditions.(4) Under these circumstances it is hard to imagine teachers being positive and futuristic in their professional orientation. Realistically, inservice education cannot hold much appeal to people in these emotional and physiological circumstances.

It appears to me that job-sharing offers the possibility of increasing time, energy, productivity, colleagiality and job satisfaction, all factors mitigating the effectiveness of current inservice efforts. *My first thesis more simply stated is that teaching as presently defined is too complex and demanding for most individuals. It does not leave enough energy or enthusiasm for additional professional training. Consequently, if we are to increase the productivity of inservice education, we must break set on existing patterns of staff utilization.*

My second concern has to do with the structure of education as a profession and its limitations for varied, complex career patterns. At present the only alternative to teaching is school administration and perhaps college teaching. There are few alternative settings for continuing instructional work with children and one cannot do so without loss of status and salary or considerable retraining and credentialing. Teachers, especially now in a period of job shortage, either continue functioning in the same job for many years or they tire of teaching and quit, seeking new types of work.

Teaching is not the only profession saddled with a problem of vocational homogeneity. Social workers, for instance, find client contact all day long repetitive and exhausting, despite their basic orientation to people and the intrigue of the particular case. The irony in this situation is that of all the professions, teaching is uniquely rich, ascribing the goals and purposes of many fields of knowledge and professions. As with the problem of teacher supply, it is possible, I believe, to turn the complexity of the job into an asset. (This requires looking at new organizational and staff-utilization patterns from sociology and psychology work perspectives. It involves placing a high priority on the design of teaching as a profession as well as a delivery system for learning and instruction.) Fortunately teaching is sufficiently complex to handle much job diversification. *My second thesis is that we must reorganize teaching to enhance its structure as a life-long profession, one with many interesting career patterns and possibilities. It is possible to accomplish this objective through job-sharing and at the same time increase the day-to-day manageability of the job.*

My last reason for advocating restructuring staff-utilization through job-sharing is due to the enormous informational base required to be an effective teacher. Few professions encompass as many fields of knowledge, techniques and skills as teaching. It is unrealistic, I believe, to expect preservice training to do more than introduce these areas. A program of inservice education is as much a part of developing the competency of a teacher as medical school, internship and residency are to the physician or law school and clerkship are to the lawyer. For many reasons undergraduate training in education is more analogous to taking the science prerequisites for entry into medical school (plus some additional exposure to the job setting) than it is to actual professional preparation. I prefer to view preservice as an "orientation" to the profession, an opportunity for college students to see what teaching is like, rather than as preparation and training. If we do this, then the expectations among practitioners and program designers as to the goals, purposes and commitment to inservice education will be enormously different than they have been in the past. My third thesis is that because of the substantial knowledge and skill bases involved in teaching, further professional preparation beyond the preservice level is imperative. Inservice education is more properly regarded as basic professional preparation rather than skill maintenance, updating and improvement.

CASE STUDIES OF JOB SHARING

As near as I can tell, the incidences of job-sharing in the country are few. Catalyst, a national non-profit education service organization, has promoted job-sharing since 1962. Originally Catalyst began with the purpose of "alleviating society's need for able personnel and ending the conspicuous waste of the training of educated women."(5) Since then the organization has conducted research and demonstration projects on job-sharing. A Catalyst study on Part-Time Teachers and How They Work: A Study of Five School Systems (1965) is one of the earliest and few reported studies of job-sharing. A second study, Job-Sharing in Municipal Government: A Case Study in the City of Palo Alto (1975) was undertaken by a Stanford political science class. In addition to these sources, the reports on job-sharing experiences are drawn from a recent colloquium sponsored by the Santa Clara School District. The purpose of the colloquium was to interest district schools, principals and teachers in the job-sharing concept, drawing on the recent experiences of schools in Palo Alto and Union City. These three case studies are helpful in examining the attitudes of administrators and teachers toward job-sharing, and the ways job-sharing has operated, particularly in teaching situations.

In 1965, Catalyst conducted a survey of some seven hundred school systems about their experiences with part-time teachers. Many of the items in this questionnaire reflect the initial concerns often voiced against job-sharing--issues of scheduling, professionalism, absenteeism, unionism. The results of the survey were startling in the contrasts between the responses of superintendents who had not used job-sharing in their schools and those administrators who had experience with job-sharing. Non-users expressed a wide range of objections which were specifically vetoed by the experienced group.

> ...where they are used uninformed prejudices tend to vanish: the part-timers soon meld into the regular school staff. They regard themselves simply as "teachers" and so before long do principals and colleagues, pupils and parents. Part-time teachers are not more prone to absenteeism than full-time teachers (frequently less so, it appears); they measure up well in all the professional criteria; they show no tendency to dilute the economic power of organized teachers.(6)

Although only the issue of communications turned out to be valid, most administrations felt this was surmountable. In general, the administrators commented on the virtues of the flexible scheduling of part-time teachers and felt they were getting more than their money's worth.(7)

In 1967, Catalyst's initial survey led to five intensive case studies of part-time teachers--two large urban school systems and three smaller communities spread across the country from New England to Iowa. With the exception of Framingham, Massachusetts, it appears to me that job-utilization leaned toward "part-time" rather than job-sharing. The experience at Framingham closely parallels the Palo Alto experiment. Partnership teaching, as it is called in Framingham, operates in the following manner:

> In this program--which is a variant of team teaching--two fully certified teachers share one full-time teaching position, one teacher taking the morning session, the other the afternoon. The program assumes (and has demonstrated) a very close dovetailing by the partners of all aspects of their joint job--planning, curriculum innovation, assessment and appropriate handling of individual pupils, dealing with parents, extra-curricular activities, professional responsibilities. The partners meet together

> frequently, confer even more frequently by telephone, usually arrange to substitute for each other when necessary. Partnership teaching, in short, is a very special form of part-time teaching, and follows a more formal, carefully organized pattern. Its success depends on thoughtful, comprehensive preparation, to anticipate, and if possible, avoid difficulties, and it thrives when the partners and the schools that employ them iron out any difficulties as they arise and are alert to improve the program. (8)

As in Palo Alto, the prospective job-sharing teachers are interviewed in the spring so that they may work out programs and materials over the summer. During the fall and through the mid-year they are closely supported by the administrative staff. Framingham began with four pairs of teachers in the first, second, fourth and fifth grades. The concerns that partnership would confuse the children, partners would be unable to get along and that parents would object did not materialize. According to the report, most of the parents felt children benefitted from the freshness, styles and strengths of two people. They appreciated the benefits of having two points of view on their child. Principals expressed the feeling that they got more than "half-time worth" from the partners. The teachers in Framingham were delighted to be working and felt a strong desire to maximize the three hours a day with their pupils.

The patterns of job-sharing in Palo Alto varied greatly among the pairs. In the first pair, one teacher worked Monday and Thursday all day, the other teacher worked Tuesday and Friday, with Wednesdays split between the two people. In another pair, with a 60%/40% time distribution, one individual worked Tuesday, Wednesday and Friday all day; the other person worked Monday and Thursday. In a third pair one person worked full days Thursday and Friday; the partner worked Monday, Tuesday; and they alternated Wednesdays. The last pair of job-sharers divided time 80%/20% so that one of the teachers could take Fridays off to travel with her husband, who is a travel agent.

Teacher responsibilities among the four pairs were divided according to pupils in some subjects, such as math, and by subject in other areas. Generally both teachers in a pair participated in pupil evaluation and parent conferences while responsibility for staff meetings and school business was shared.

Initially all the teachers were concerned that students would play them off against one another. This fear did not materialize though the teachers did express the need for clear groundrules such as "Go to the teacher who is directly responsible...with a compliment or a problem." Another common fear was that the other teacher would be "liked best." Again, all the sharees agreed that they soon forgot about "being liked best." Both the Catalyst Report and the Santa Clara Symposium cited the major problem area in job-sharing as the greater communication load. Apparently, to overcome this problem, all job sharees spent a good deal of time on the telephone and developed elaborate note systems. (These are some of the hidden costs in job-sharing. It is helpful to think about proximity when pairing participants.) Though communication was recognized as the only real problem that emerged, in contrast to the imagined ones, all participants agreed that this was solvable and that the amount of time and energy needed for communication diminished after several months.

Job sharees spoke of a number of advantages in job-sharing. They felt that students received attention and quicker feedback on their work and papers. With two teachers working, each from his/her own strengths, different emphases are brought to the same subject area, exposing students to alternative points of view.

The teachers all found teaching more enjoyable due to increased leisure and time for oneself and for reflection. In addition, the teachers had more time, energy and desire to prepare for teaching. The last advantage concerns the rewards of colleagueship from job-sharing. In general, the teachers felt that contact with another adult professional made for better teaching. They found the sharing of ideas satisfying, increasing their motivation.

PATTERNS OF INSERVICE EDUCATION AND JOB-SHARING

Job-sharing has been mentioned in terms of three goals. The first is increasing the manageability (and flexibility) of the job to permit more time and energy for advanced professional training. The second goal is altering the structure of the profession in order to create diversified career patterns, greater specialization and increased colleagueship. The third is improving professional training by increasing the scope and depth of the curriculum. Several patterns of inservice education based on job-sharing can be drawn from these goals.

Option one I will call the Time-Saving Plan. The main purpose of this plan is to reduce the usual teaching time and responsibilities so that an individual can participate fully in regularly scheduled inservice "activities" throughout the school year. A variation in this option is to share only the actual time away for inservice work, akin to a permanent, scheduled substitute. The latter is probably less desirable from the sharee's point of view and can easily slip into part-time or substitute circumstances, rather than job-sharing as it has been defined in this paper.

Option two refers to the Sabbatical Plan. In this option, an individual takes an extended period away from all teaching responsibilities for intensive inservice work. Another possibility is to alternate work and sabbatical periods with one's job partner. The Sabbatical Plan enables teachers to work or train in alternative settings and positions and to engage in in-depth training experiences.

The third option, the Apprenticeship Option, views the job-sharing circumstance itself as a form of inservice training, pairing teachers of different styles and strengths. In other words, job-sharing is generated not so much to save time or energy for oneself or for professional growth, but to work alongside another person with complementary skills. The sharee may not be interested in long-term job-sharing, but utilizes it as a temporary training mode.

The fourth option, the Teacher Trainer Option, increases the circumstances so that a classroom teacher may also spend time as a teacher trainer, perhaps in a teacher center or school-based, in-house faculty operation. He/She may (or may not)continue to work full-time but can diversify his/her roles.

The last option, Increasing the Educational Setting, is similar in intent to option four. It addresses particularly the goal of increasing career options. Option five requires reorganizing the school to create more diversified job possibilities. For example, a school center could serve different functions--skills center, personal development education center, social action center, etc. Teachers throughout their career elect many "teaching" assignments with quite different roles and substantive emphases.

Job-sharing is a mechanism which permits individuals and school systems the flexibility to bring each of these options into existence. For individuals it generates time, energy, and a new, equally attractive work norm. For school systems, job-sharing guarantees a steady flow of manpower to take care of the institution's basic responsibility for the education of its students. In a time of shrinking pupil enrollment and increased teacher supply, the educational decision-maker can, and should search for designs that place the priority on quality rather than quantity. His/Her concern must be with the improvement of education as a profession as well as with education as a means of instruction.

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INSERVICE: LEGISLATION AND LEGAL ISSUES

Ralph M. Pais
Stanford Center for Research
and Development in Teaching

There is a great deal of work being done in the area of inservice education for teachers. Much of the work currently being done is directed towards evaluating whether existing inservice programs and techniques adequately meet the needs of individual teachers, school districts, and students. In addition,efforts are being made to develop innovative ideas in this area so that the continuing education of teachers will be a stimulating and vital process.

Many educators who are working in this area have expressed concern over the possible existence of legal constraints. Although there appears to be a general suspicion that there are legal issues to be confronted many otherwise well-informed educators appear to be uncertain about the nature of these issues. Therefore, it was determined that a preliminary study of legislation should be undertaken so that the genuine issues raised could begin to be identified.

This paper is not intended to be an exhaustive compilation or analysis of inservice legislation. It is a preliminary probe into the legislation. The report describes the findings of this early effort and sets forth recommendations for further work which needs to be done in the area of inservice legislation.

When this study of legislation was begun in the late fall of 1975, certain assumptions were made. First, it was assumed that no work of this type had been undertaken in this area and that this was a first effort to identify issues raised by legislation. This assumption proved to be incorrect. Several groups have been involved in the examination of legislation affecting inservice. In California the Legislative Analyst's office (a branch of the state legislature) has examined and evaluated existing legislation in this area and has offered new proposals. The Lawyers' Committee for Civil Rights Under Law, a Washington,D.C. group, has been working in the inservice area for some time. At present they are preparing a compilation of all legislation from the fifty states which relates to inservice. The California State Department of Education has also conducted a national survey of existing inservice legislation around the country although that work is now somewhat dated.

Although these are the primary projects which have been encountered there can be little doubt that there are others doing similar work. Further, it is also likely that as the area becomes more "popular" more projects will be initiated and new legislation will emerge.

A second assumption which was made was that an examination of various states' legislative approaches would be definitive in providing insight into the inservice policy of these states. This assumption also proved to be incorrect. One of the most important conclusions reached to date is that an examination of legislation alone is a far too restrictive approach to examining state policies and practices in this area. Legislative examination and analysis is a very useful starting point but much more is needed as well. Legislation may provide a framework within which regulations and guidelines are developed, but it is not the only source of policy. Even an absence of laws specifically dealing with inservice teacher education is insufficient evidence on which to base a finding that the state in question has no specific policy with regard to inservice. Similarly, a state's legislation may not fully reflect or embody its policy towards inservice in just the way that the absence of legislation does not necessarily mean that there is no policy.

To fully understand how any given state approaches inservice it is necessary to examine a number of elements including legislation. In addition, to study the legislation it is important to look at the state's department of education to determine to what extent it is involved with the development of policies and/or regulations applicable to local schools. It is also necessary to look into the relative strength of teachers' professional organizations and to determine to what extent inservice programs have become the subject of collective bargaining. In addition, local boards of education establish regulations in the area.

For the purposes of this initial phase of study only three states were examined closely: California, Colorado and Minnesota. These states were not chosen for any fundamental reason; they were states from which information beyond the basic statutes was readily available. Because the purpose of this paper is primarily to raise issues which exist in the legislative area I will discuss these states' approaches to inservice in somewhat general terms rather than examining the details of every statute which was discovered.

All legislation and policy formulations are the result of the political process. Although inservice is a relatively narrow area of concern the interest groups which seek to affect policy-making tend to remain the same from state to state. (This is not to say that the positions taken by these groups is constant, but since the groups remain the same they tend to have similar interests.) The various interest groups include: professional organizations of teachers, institutions of higher education, state departments and boards of education, county and/or local school boards and districts, individual teachers, and various community/citizen organizations. If one understands the relationships between these various groups in any state he/she will understand a great deal about policy making in that state.

It appears that states tend to not address inservice as a separate area of concern but to attach it to other concerns. That is, in formulating policy the emphasis has not been on inservice but has been on some specific program of which inservice is a component. None of the states studied has a broad legislative statement dealing solely with inservice. That is, there does not appear to be any legislation at present which specifically attempts to deal with educational concerns directly through inservice. Instead the approach of most legislatures is programmatic.

For example, in California, there is a great deal of legislation which in some way affects inservice, but almost all of it is programmatic. That is, statutes which create specific educational programs have an inservice component attached to them. An example of this is the Bi-Lingual Education Act of 1972 (California Education Code Section 5761 et seq.). This statute was enacted as a result of the Legislature's finding that a large number of children in California have a language other than English as their primary language and that it is important to have programs to develop in each child a fluency in English to permit enrollment in regular educational programs

(Education Code Section 5761). The statute creates what is known as a categorical educational program; that is, it is aimed at a specified target group rather than at the student population in general.

School districts are not mandated to provide programs provided for by this Act, but if they choose to do so the statute sets forth components which must be included (Education Code Section 5761.6). Included as a required component is an inservice training program for teachers and aides that is linked with an institution of higher education, which shall include the establishment of a liaison with a nearby institution of higher education and the solocitation of help from such institution in order to continually upgrade the bilingual education program.

This approach is the one generally taken in California; inservice training has not been addressed as a separate educational concern. Instead, as various educational programs have been created an inservice component has been attached. Since the Department of Education is also organized according to programs this suggests that there may be only limited coordination between the various programs. This approach also tends to lead to the possibility that teaching personnel participating in various categorical programs will receive far more inservice training than general teaching staff who do not participate in these categorical programs.

A 1974 study of teacher training in California by the Legislative Analyst's office dealt with the inservice area. The following statement contained in that report represents a useful overview of their findings:

> We believe that the current structure and funding of inservice training is in need of reorganization and coordination. It is apparent that the myriad forms of inservice training now offered by a variety of separate agencies and pursued individually by school teachers must be organized into an integrated inservice training program (p.31).

The Legislative Analyst proposed legislation which would have directed the Department of Education to establish an Office of Inservice Training which would (1) review and evaluate school district inservice training programs, (2) operate an information dissemination center for effective programs, (3) assist and review the development of inservice programs on a regional basis and (4) administer a grant program for regional inservice training programs. This proposal was not successful in the 1975 legislative session, but it is expected that legislation of this sort will ultimately be passed in California.

However, until the Legislature formulates a new approach to inservice for California it is likely that the programmatic style will continue in its present form. That is, school districts will offer various programs throughout the school year which they have determined will be useful to their teaching personnel. In addition teachers will continue to take college courses during the summer months. The incentives for participation in these programs will vary although most will participate in inservice either to obtain salary credits or to meet specific contractual requirements. In California there is, at present, no statutory requirement that the courses taken be related to a teacher's position to be useable for salary credits. It is possible that local districts have adopted such rules but there is no statewide requirement to that effect.

Perhaps the most difficult information to ascertain is how much money is being spent for inservice projects. Even if a state enacts the most enlightened legislation (from an educational vantage point) if no funds are appropriated to implement the programs then the legislation serves no meaningful purpose. Further, an examination of a state's legislation alone sheds absolutely no light on which programs are funded. Even an examination of the state's budget may shed no light on the question of funding for inservice. Budgetary analysis may reveal how much money is appropriated for specific programs but will not show how much of that money is being used for the inservice component. One reason for this problem is that although programs may have mandatory inservice components, there are no requirements that a specified percentage or amount of the money allocated for the program as a whole be utilized for inservice. The decision as to how much to use for inservice is left to the local school districts. Further, inservice projects other than those attached to specific programs will tend to be completely funded by the local districts. Because of this, it would be necessary to study each district (in California there are over one thousand school districts) to determine how much money is actually appropriated overall for inservice projects.

The Legislative Analyst's study found that "few districts can provide exact information concerning local expenditures for inservice training. However, it is apparent that expenditures constitute considerably less than one percent of a school district budget." (p. 29)

Colorado and Minnesota both take a somewhat different approach to inservice than California. Although both states have enacted categorical programs which have inservice components very similar to those which exist in California this is not the element of their approaches worthy of special attention, since it is similar to California. Instead the relationship of teachers' certificates to inservice training must be examined because it is this feature of these states' approaches that provides an interesting alternative to the California approach.

Colorado teachers are given certificates which are valid for a five-year period, and may be renewed for successive five-year periods upon completion of a professional growth plan consisting of six or more semester hours of renewal credit earned within the five-year period prior to the date of application (Colorado Revised Statutes 22-60-107 (1)). Teachers are responsible for designing professional growth plans which may consist of college or university credits (minimum of two units, maximum of six units), approved inservice programs (maximum of four units), approved travel (maximum of one unit), supervision of student teacher or intern (maximum of one unit), foreign study (maximum of two units), professional development experience (maximum of one unit). Although only one of these options is actually called inservice, all of them fit into a broad definition of inservice which would include all continuing education programs engaged in by teachers beyond that required for original certification.

To be acceptable for recertification credit the individual teacher's professional growth plan must be accepted by the local district board of education. Perhaps the most noteworthy aspect of this approach is that it is based on individual and local decision-making. It is designed so that individual teachers and districts will be able to work together to develop plans whereby the teacher will become more competent to work with the children in his/her immediate teaching environment.

The Colorado statute specifically requires that any university or college courses which are taken for recertification credit must be appropriate to the certificate to be renewed or to the assignment of the teacher. Thus an elementary teacher will probably not be able to obtain renewal credits for taking courses in Chaucerian poetry taught in Middle English. It should be remembered that in California a similar teacher could probably obtain salary credits for taking the same course unless the district had a relevancy requirement; there is no such requirement in the California law.

District inservice programs may also be used for recertification to the extent that the programs comply with criteria established by the state Department of Education (Colorado Revised Statutes 21-60-107 (2) (a)). The Colorado Department of Education has prepared extensive guidelines and procedures for planning inservice programs for recertification credit. If the Department does not approve the program it cannot be used for recertification credit.

The Minnesota approach is very much like that of Colorado. Perhaps the greatest difference is that in Colorado teachers' professional growth plans are subject to approval by local district boards of education while in Minnesota the state's regulations create local Committees for the Approval of Programs to qualify for the Renewal of Continuing Certificates in Education (Education 546, Regulation Relating to the Renewal of Continuing Certificates). these local committees are to be made up of four certificated persons elected by certificated teaching faculty and certificated non-administrative service personnel; two certificated persons elected by the elementary and secondary administration to represent them; one resident of the district who is not an employee of the district. The local committees are responsible for determining the number of renewal units to be allowed for certain types of experiences. These committees also have a number of other responsibilities including evaluating the inservice needs of the district.

Both Colorado and Minnesota have, in effect, tied inservice education to the teacher's credential or certificate. In approaching this area both states have decided that decision-making must be done at the local level so that the inservice programs which any group of teachers participate in will be responsive to the needs of the programs in which those teachers are employed.

By requiring teachers to renew their certificates both states have provided a strong incentive for teachers to participate in meaningful inservice activities. In Colorado there is some control of inservice programs at the state level because prior state approval is necessary for inservice programs to be useable for recertification. Also by requiring recertification much of the focus of inservice will be in this area rather than on programmatic inservice.

As we have seen, a basic difference between the California and the Minnesota/Colorado approaches is the relationship between inservice and teachers' credentials. The unifying legislation in Colorado and Minnesota is not concerned specifically with inservice but with the licensing of teachers. Yet in examining these various states it appeared as if Colorado and Minnesota had more specific legislation. Both states appear to have clearly defined the need for continuing teacher education simply by requiring the renewal of the certificates. What I am hoping to convey is the admittedly subjective notion that the Colorado and Minnesota approaches are much more clearly focused than the California approach. This is probably the result of the fact that California provides no central unifying theme as the other two states do.

Although this has been an extremely general treatment of the existing legislation in these three states, I believe that it is sufficiently specific to convey the fundamental approaches taken by these states and to permit a discussion of the issues which have emerged. There is no doubt that further work in this area should be undertaken and it is my hope that the work done to date will serve to direct the subsequent studies.

Perhaps the first issue which should be dealt with is the extent to which inservice training should be required by state statute. In California inservice is mandated by statute only to the extent that school districts choose to participate in categorical programs which have required inservice components. In Colorado and Minnesota inservice training of some sort is mandated by statute so long as a teacher wishes to remain certified. The issue is whether a state should attempt to deal with this question through statewide legislation or whether it wishes to make the policy decision that the question of inservice is between the employers (local districts) and employees (teachers).

In addition, we will need to examine what the appropriate role for state agencies is in this area. But we will initially have to determine which state agency should deal with the issue. Although I have tended to speak of the "state" as a large amorphous being, there are in each state a number of governmental agencies which separately might wish to be involved in the field. Thus, it is necessary as a preliminary step to define which agencies might be interested and/or concerned with inservice education. For example, in California it is possible to define at least three large educational agencies which might have an interest in overseeing inservice education: the State Board of Education, the State Department of Education, and the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing. There are, in addition, myriad branches within the State Department of Education which might wish to be involved with this area.

It is also possible that a new agency might be created to deal with inservice. As was mentioned earlier the California Legislative Analyst has recommended that an Office of Inservice Education be created within the Department of Education. The creation of such a new office might serve as a useful means of establishing some coordination of inservice efforts throughout the state. Other states might choose to delegate this responsibility to an already existing office within their state department. What is extremely important to note is that the relative roles of various state agencies will change from state to state, and that in attempting to evaluate the role of the state it is necessary to examine the relationships between these agencies. In some states the Board of Education may serve a purely symbolic function while the real authority for educational programs will lie in the Department of Education. In other states the opposite may be true.

It is also necessary to evaluate the relationship between the legislature of the state and the educational agencies. In some states the legislatures may enact very specific and detailed legislation while in others they may delegate nearly total authority to an educational agency. For example, examining either Minnesota's or New York's statutes will provide very little insight into their educational policies because the legislatures in these states have granted broad rule-making powers to state agencies. On the other hand California's legislation tends to be quite specific and detailed. The basis and means of decision-making may vary depending on the role of the decision-makers: state legislators or agency personnel. It is important to consider the varying types of pressures that might be brought to bear on each type of decision-maker and how states' policies may differ if for no other reason than that decision-making authority is vested in different governmental entities.

Another issue which is extremely important when evaluating a state's approach to inservice is the role of teacher organizations. Teachers tend to be represented by state affiliates of either the National Education Association (NEA) or the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). The relative strength of each union and their effectiveness as lobbyists may have a significant bearing on a state's approach to inservice. Further, the extent to which a given state recognizes collective bargaining for teachers may affect whether or not legislation is enacted. For example, if one examines the statutes of Hawaii, very little dealing with inservice education will be found. This is primarily because inservice has become the subject of collective bargaining contract negotiations in Hawaii. As increasing numbers of states become involved with collective bargaining this may be a growing phenomenon: that inservice will be seen as a negotiable issue.

As has already been stated, the issue of funding is extremely important and must be carefully studied. If inservice programs are required by statute, who should pay for them? In the case of categorical programs some of the money available to local districts to fund the programs may be used for inservice. However, if a district determines that its teachers should have certain inservice programs, then should the district put on the program at its own expense or should others pay a portion (e.g., teachers, teacher unions or the state)? Further, if districts are to be the primary source of funding for inservice programs how will this affect the poorer school districts? If the financial burden for inservice programs falls primarily on local districts then the less affluent districts may be unable to provide all the inservice training which may be appropriate. Perhaps the new approaches to school finance which are being developed to comply with Serrano v. Priest in California will provide new ideas for sources of funding for inservice programs. (Serrano was a case decided by the California Supreme Court which held that basing school finances on assessed valuation of property was in violation of the California Constitution.)

The legislation examined to date has been primarily aimed at teachers. This raises the issue of whether teacher aides and other employees should be required to participate in inservice programs. Aides tend to be noncertificated personnel but they nonetheless play an increasingly important role in the classroom. If new legislation is proposed which would mandate some forms of inservice it should be determined if that legislation should include not only teachers but all classroom personnel, including teachers' aides.

It is my recommendation that certain further projects be undertaken to fully evaluate whether these initial impressions of legislative issues are accurate. As an initial step, meetings should be held with members of the Lawyer's Committee for Civil Rights since they have collected the necessary statutory material. However, this must be followed up with further work because, as has been stated frequently, the mere absence of legislation is insufficient indication that there is no state policy with regard to inservice. I suggest that additional states be studied in the same manner that California, Colorado and Minnesota were examined. The number of states which should be examined is directly related to the amount of time which is available. In addition, it is extremely important that federal legislation be examined as well. Although education is principally a matter of state concern much of the direction taken by the states is based on federal legislation. Many state categorical programs, for example, flow directly from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Furthermore, the impact of federal funding is extremely important.

In addition, more work is needed with regard to the issue of funding of inservice programs since this is so closely related to legislation. A useful starting point may be state budgets and their accompanying analysis where this is available. However, some examination of sample school district budgets should also be undertaken since it appears that so many programs are sponsored by local districts. In addition, it may be necessary to conduct some questioning of teachers to determine the extent to which they bear the financial burdens of inservice programs themselves.

I further suggest that a series of conferences be held for two basic purposes: first, to discuss the legislative issues which have been raised, and second, to attempt to draft new statutory models which could be useful to states interested in taking innovative approaches to inservice. Persons from all interest groups should be invited to participate in these conferences as should state legislators who are known to have an interest in education. Once all of these steps have been completed it should be possible to introduce legislation which will more directly address the educational needs of the schools with regard to inservice.

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION:
A NEW PERSPECTIVE IN INSERVICE TRAINING

Winifred I. Warnat
Howard University

With the increased emphasis on inservice education for teachers, the training of early childhood educators assumes considerable importance. Engulfed by critical concerns at the elementary and secondary levels, including the teacher surplus and stringent budgetary constraints, public school systems have been uncertain as to how much priority should be assigned to early childhood education, especially the education of children between the ages of two and five years. Early childhood education--in the "child care years" in particular--traditionally has not resided in the public school system domain, but rather has been developed within departments of welfare, human resources, and health, and in community agencies.

Those responsible for public education are reassessing training needs in the early childhood education area. Interest has been stimulated by recent federal legislation authorizing the early identification and education of the handicapped in Title VI of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The implication of this provision is that classroom teachers must be prepared to provide the necessary educational services for these children once they have been identified. This will create a great need for inservice training which becomes critical in view of the fact that not only is there a movement to serve young children with special education needs, but there is impetus for other types of inservice training in the early childhood education area as well.

THE CHILD CARE DOMAIN: QUESTIONS OF COORDINATION AND GOVERNANCE

The majority of early childhood education activities are carried out in "day care" programs. These programs are generally conducted under the aegis of various public and private agencies, rather than by local public school systems. Because they are conducted under the auspices of so many organizations and in such varied settings, day care activities are characterized by tremendous disparity, both in the kind and quality of services provided young children. Of increasing concern are the lack of coordination and the fragmentation of efforts within both the public and private sectors as efforts to expand child care services continue to gain momentum.

At present, there are twenty-two federal agencies authorized to provide funding for child care services. Current legislative efforts are geared toward expanding this authorization, as evidenced by the recently approved Title XX of the Social Security Act and attempts o pass the Child and Family Services Act. The need for collaborative planning in program implementation and staff development among the entities responsible for early childhood education is considerable, and it increases when public school efforts are added to the picture. The issue of whether or not a single agency or organization should be responsible for coordinating child care activities which encompass day care as well as preschool programs is being heatedly debated at all levels of governance.

WHO NEEDS TRAINING: QUESTIONS OF PEOPLE AND NEED

As a public school effort, inservice teacher education focuses largely on two areas: (a) development of skills to improve competence and (b) meeting of requirements for certification in order to legitimize personnel. These foci are particularly important in the area of early childhood education, for the following reasons:

(1) For the majority of regular classroom teachers, specific course work or practicum experience in early childhood education is/was not a requirement at the baccalaureate level.

(2) Much early childhood education is done by paraprofessionals who may or may not have adequate training for working with young children.

(3) Only twenty states have identified any criteria for certifying individuals to work in child care programs.(1)

(4) "Mainstreaming" of handicapped children at the preschool level has contributed to inservice training needs.

(5) The teacher surplus has stimulated school systems to explore

early childhood education as a field in which experienced elementary and secondary teachers could be employed, thereby creating an inservice training need for these people in order to prepare them to work with younger children.

Thus, both professionals and paraprofessionals have inservice needs in the area of early childhood education, with the range of paraprofessionals who will require training being quite broad--including paid aides, community volunteers, and parents--due to the structure of present early childhood programs.

TRAINING APPROACHES

Because early childhood education is conducted by a broad spectrum of agencies and personnel and involves a large number of training needs, the organizational problems are complex. One persistent issue is that of whether credentialing should be based on credits earned or on the competencies exhibited in individual performance.

Other than traditional degree programs in early childhood education offered by institutions of higher education, usually through schools or departments of home economics or education, only one training model, the Child Development Associate (CDA) is widely implemented at present. The CDA model is competency-based and focuses on paraprofessional training. A non-degree credential, it is the only model strongly supported by the U.S. Office of Child Development.(2)

The proper responsibility of institutions of higher education in the field of early childhood education must be redefined. Colleges and universities find it difficult to address increasing early childhood personnel needs, and clinics designed to retrain teachers for new roles have not developed rapidly. In addition, whereas inservice offerings are usually at the graduate level, many aides and paraprofessionals do not have college degrees and are therefore ineligible for this training. Although some community colleges offer promising programs in early childhood education, such as those in California, for the most part, undergraduate teacher training programs are in need of revamping to include this area of study.

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Adequate descriptions of the skills and knowledge required by the early childhood educator do not presently exist. The development of integrated training objectives and methods of assessing performance depends on valid role descriptions.(3) Surveys of state requirements for day care and preschool program personnel have revealed no uniform descriptors of the child care educator.(4) Because of the variety of approaches to early childhood education, identifying uniform "child care competencies" is a complex task. Alternative educational models may require different training approaches and different staffing patterns. For example, extensive use of paraprofessionals in child care activities enables a variety of staffing options, each of which may require a different inservice training approach.

CONCERNS OF CONTENT AND PROCESS

Present inservice training efforts include three prominent content areas: child development, cultural diversity, and the education of the handicapped. Child development, although important at all levels of education, should receive special emphasis in the retraining of teachers whose chief experience has been with older children.(5) Bilingual and multicultural approaches are receiving much more attention than before at all levels,(6) and the movement toward "mainstreaming," or the inclusion of handicapped children in the regular classroom, has greatly increased attention on the education needs of handicapped children.(7) The prevalence of differentiated staffing gives rise to a vast number of training needs, a situation which is further complicated by the general resistance of teachers of older children to team teaching. The training programs created must be extremely flexible in order to accommodate the needs of professional teachers working with young children for the first time, as well as the needs of paraprofessionals, parents, and day care center administrators who, although they have experience working with young children, may not have been trained professionally.

Improvement of inservice teacher education at the early childhood level will require cooperation among a vast number of agencies if adequate training is to be offered to all of the populations involved in a format which is appropriate to the variety of settings and programs currently offered to children. Because of the breadth and variety of early childhood activities, institutions of higher education, school systems, and community agencies will need to negotiate and coordinate their appropriate roles. Program planning must also include the vast number of agencies not under the control of local education agencies. Thus, an effective vehicle of communication must be created which will involve all of the numerous agencies and organizations.

The problem of the process of inservice training for early childhood educators is discouragingly complicated. In the September-October 1975 issue of Day Care and Early Childhood Education, the issue of territoriality, in terms of which organization, if any, should control or coordinate child care activities, was addressed by four leaders in the field of education.(8) Senator Mondale, Chairman of the Senate Subcommittee on Children and Youth, supports the notion that parents should be responsible for selecting child and family services, and it is therefore important that they have the widest possible variety of child care services from which to choose. Wayne Smith, Executive Director of the National Association for Child Development and Education, an organization which represents proprietary providers of child care, also stresses the right of parents to choose the kind of service their children receive. According to Albert Shanker, President of the American Federation of Teachers, child care services are in need of a coordinating agent. Shanker identifies the public school system as the logical entity capable of performing such a task. Theodore Tayior, Executive Director of the Day Care and Child Development Council of America, opposes Mr. Shanker's position, expressing a serious concern with the single-system or organization control approach to child care services. Judging from the above perspectives of the field, it would appear that the governance of child care services has approached the issue identification phase, but that possible resolutions have not yet emerged.

FUTURE EXPANSION OF CHILD CARE SERVICES

Most experts agree that early childhood services will continue to expand, and that this expansion will automatically create a need for additional personnel. The two most obvious indicators of future expansion of child care services are the present economic situation and the changing family structure, which are interrelated issues. The tightening economy has contributed to the significant increase in the number of families in which both parents work. In addition, the women's liberation movement has increased the emphasis on equal employment opportunity, resulting in federal legislation and the entrance of an increasing number of women into the fulltime work force.

Finally, as a result of divorce and adoption laws becoming more liberal and a growing number of young adults opting to remain single, there is an increasing number of single-parent families in which the parent must work and any young children therefore require some form of day care.

That there is momentum building in efforts to expand effective child care services is further evidenced by events such as the following: At the Coalition of Labor Union Women convention held in Detroit in 1975, the five thousand members present identified the implementation of a national day care program for children of working women as a top priority.(9) In the same year, a city council decision in Chico, California, allowed a city council member who was a widow to obtain reimbursement for child care which was required while she was out of town on city business.(10)

Urie Bronfenbrenner recently summarized the changes in family structure which are associated with the need to increase services to young children. He is very critical of present child care services:

> The United States is now the only industrialized nation that does not insure health care for every family with young children.
>
> The United States is the only industrialized nation that does not guarantee a minimum income level for every family with young children.
>
> The United States is the only industrialized nation that has not yet established a nationwide program of child care services for children of working mothers.(11)

In contrast to Bronfenbrenner's opinion, a study addressing federal policy for preschool services, conducted by Meredith Larson of the Stanford Research Institute, concluded that there is no need for expansion of services, but that there is a need to improve the quality of child care services which are currently provided.(12)

CONCLUSION

The exploration of the complexities and intricacies of the child care domain presented here has barely scratched the surface. However, in terms of inservice training in this area, there is little to refute that it is urgently needed.

Although there is much confusion in the child care controversy, certain issues are quite clear. It is obvious that many regular classroom teachers and paraprofessionals do not have adequate preparation in early childhood development. Furthermore, inservice training efforts in early childhood are scattered and unsystematic, due, in part, to the fact that child care services are characterized by activities which vary dramatically in both process and content. Another clear issue is that, unlike other areas in public education, the population in need of training in early childhood education is significantly varied,because of the sudden explosion of the child care domain and the fact that it encompasses both the public and private sectors, as well as a variety of newly-developed education agencies.

In summary, the clear needs which have emerged from the controversy are:

(1) The population in need of training includes "regular" classroom teachers newly assigned to early childhood education, paraprofessionals, and day care workers.

(2) There is a need for the input and involvement in inservice training efforts of both public and private sector agencies and organizations involved in child care activities.

(3) Current efforts in providing child care services must be coordinated.

(4) Early childhood training must focus especially on child development, cultural diversity, and the education of handicapped children.

(5) Some clearly identified qualifications need to be established for early childhood educators at all levels of training and involvement.

(6) Alternative approaches to training early childhood workers need to be designed and implemented.

Before the early childhood education controversy can be resolved, the above needs must be met and the following issues addressed:

(1) Should child care activities be coordinated by a single agency or organization in an effort to establish some kind of quality control in the delivery of service?

(2) Based on the breadth of federal legislation in the area of child care, what is the impact of legislative efforts at the federal, state, and local levels on the delivery of child care services?

(3) Is there a need to create an entirely new cadre/breed of educators for young children?

(4) What is the cost-effectiveness of inservice training in the early childhood education area, given the demands of credentialing and maintaining a low pupil-staff ratio?

Early childhood education is clearly an important area of inservice teacher education and must be dealt with in any efforts to improve or alter the inservice enterprise.

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(1) *A Manual on Standards Affecting School Personnel in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1974.

(2) *The CDA Program, A Guide for Training.* DHEW OHD/OCD, DHEW Publication No. (OHD) 75-1065.

(3) For a discussion of role descriptions for teachers, see Marilyn Nelson, "Creating Organizational Structures for the In-Service Training of Teachers," in Report V of this series.

(4) *A Manual on Standards Affecting School Personnel in the United States*, *op.cit.* "Licensing and Certification Standards for Preprimary Personnel," U.S. Office of Child Development, preliminary draft of unpublished document, November, 1975.

(5) For a discussion of ISTE programs focused on child development, see Richard M. Brandt, "The Child Study Movement," in Report V of this series.

(6) For a case study of one bilingual/multicultural program, see Elsa Brizzi, "A Multicultural School: Lessons for Inservice Education," in Report V of this series.

(7) For a discussion of the trend toward mainstreaming, see Report II of this series, *Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers*.

(8) *Day Care and Early Childhood Education*, 3, 1, September-October 1975.

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(10) *Ibid.*

(11) Urie Bronfenbrenner, "The American Family: Making the System Work," keynote address, Philadelphia, Pa.

(12) Meredith Larson, *Federal Policy for Preschool Services: Assumptions and Evidence*. Menlo Park, Ca: Stanford Research Institute, May, 1975.

ISTE

REPORT IV • PART THREE

Bargaining for Professionalization

Joyce • Bhaerman • Luke • Darland

BARGAINING FOR PROFESSIONALIZATION: AFT AND NEA VIEWS OF ISTE

Bruce R. Joyce
Stanford Center for Research
and Development in Teaching

Part Three includes two papers which express the views of the two major teacher organizations on inservice teacher education. With teachers demanding more and more that they be regarded as professionals and given a greater voice in what goes on in the schools, the role of teacher organizations has become increasingly important. In the first paper, the viewpoint of the American Federation of Teachers is presented by Robert Bhaerman, Director of Research for the AFT. The opinions of the National Education Association are contained in the second paper, which was written by members of the NEA staff and edited by Robert Luke and David Darland.

Bhaerman's concise paper states the AFT view, which emphasizes the role that should be played by teachers in ISTE programs. While acknowledging that inservice training for teachers and administrators is finally beginning to receive the attention it requires, the AFT feels that a great many problems remain to be resolved. A main problem is that of organization. The AFT feels that programs organized and conducted solely by institutions of higher education and lacking input from teachers and school districts are inadequate. "One-shot" efforts which are planned by local school districts and generally neither speak to teachers' needs nor provide adequate follow-up to training are also criticized. The present inservice effort, in the AFT's opinion, often neglects teachers' needs and fails to have any impact on their behavior. Successful ISTE programs will be organized around teacher centers and will include input from teachers, administrators, and college personnel, support in the form of time and money from school districts, and collaborative planning. Bhaerman points out that the improvements which are beginning to occur are largely due to the efforts of organized teachers. Six guidelines for ISTE programs, which were originally defined by the AFT several years ago, are: (1) provision of programs for all teachers, (2) the opportunity for teachers to work toward specific, important goals, (3) opportunities to explore areas other than teachers' field of expertise, (4) use of a variety of group approaches, (5) training conducted by competent instructors who have recent or current classroom experience and employ current, appropriate methods, and (6) bringing teachers with common needs who are from different buildings together. In the opinion of the American Federation of Teachers, inservice teacher education will become strong and purposeful when the interested parties learn to work collaboratively to create programs, and organized teachers are involved in all steps of the process.

According to the National Education Association, the goal of ISTE is self-improvement for teachers, the content of ISTE should focus on teaching and the school as a social setting, and the method of ISTE should be practical experiences. In its paper, the NEA staff states that the problems with ISTE are that the focus is not on teaching, programs do not carry over into the classroom, teachers' needs are not assessed, and teachers have no part in deciding what they will study. Too many ISTE programs are aimed at introducing teachers to recent innovations, without first evaluating these new programs. The NEA's guidelines for ISTE programs are: (1) ISTE should be an extension of preservice training and continue throughout teachers' careers, (2) ISTE should be based on needs expressed by teachers themselves, (3) organization and evaluation are the domain of teachers and others directly involved in the schools, (4) inservice training should be included in negotiated contracts, and (5) public funds should finance ISTE. The NEA feels that ISTE will be quite different in the future if these guidelines are followed. Teachers and administrators will decide content together, with university personnel serving as resource people. ISTE will become institutionalized through negotiated contracts. States will legitimize inservice and it will be an integral part of teachers' work. Schooling efforts will be better organized and resources better utilized to serve the education needs of unique individuals within the social system of the schools and to emphasize appropriate national priorities. Critical areas of research which will be required to help bring about the above changes are outlined in the paper. Improving ISTE, in the National Education Association's view, will depend upon research to develop conceptual systems, government incentives, and valid psychological and institutional foundations for training systems.

These two papers summarize the AFT and NEA views of ISTE. Although there are differences and similarities in the viewpoints, both organizations would agree with teachers themselves that the role of teachers in planning, organizing, and evaluating programs of ISTE should be greatly increased.

A BRIEF STATEMENT OF THE AFT'S VIEWS ON IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Robert D. Bhaerman
Director of Educational Research
American Federation of Teachers

The training of teachers should not end with the receipt of the baccalaureate nor, in most cases, the master's degree; not when the need exists for training and retraining teachers for new and expanded roles in education: teachers for the very young child, teachers for the handicapped, teachers for students who are striving to learn a second language, teachers for students who are striving to live in a new culture, and teachers for adults who are striving simply to learn and to live. Nor should the continued training of teachers be concentrated in a college classroom on a week night or Saturday morning; not when the need exists for staff development/teacher centers in which colleagues and peers continuously serve as exemplars for fellow teachers. Nor should teachers be the passive recipients of prearranged, sponsor-fed in-service programs. Teachers should be involved in all aspects of planning, conducting, and evaluating their own ongoing learning experiences.

The current situation in in-service education is far from perfect. Much remains to be set right; much remains to be reformed. Although we appear to have turned the corner on some of the basic problems, in most school districts there still is not totally-conceived, overall policy or procedure directed toward the continuing effort to upgrade the competencies of a school staff--teachers and administrators alike.

Many, if not most, institutions of higher education still function without giving adequate attention to the continued upgrading of the professionals they prepare. Graduate degree programs of the "master teacher" type do too little to improve the skills of experienced teachers. Continuing professional programs and extension centers conducted by these institutions do not fill the voids in the repertoire of the classroom teacher's teaching skill.

Frequently such programs are inadequately supervised or administered. A significant lack of program evaluation by the sponsoring institution results in courses having little impact upon, or relevancy to, teachers' actual needs. Often courses are taught in such a manner and by such personnel that even the sponsoring institution will not accept them for advanced credit in its regular degree programs. Through summer workshops, teachers' needs (as determined by the sponsoring institution and not the training population itself nor the employing schools) are met in such a geographically scattered pattern that the impact upon the total program in any single school is insignificant.

Coupled with these problems, local school districts' traditional conceptions of in-service days more often than not have consisted of having a state or national figure in education say either complimentary or demeaning things about the manner in which teachers are performing their roles, without imparting any significant impact on teachers' behavior. Few school systems have taken a hard look at their in-service program in terms of an overall educational philosophy. In-service education all too often has meant individual effort at professional advancement (according to standards set by outside agencies) or the provision of a few scattered days throughout the year when a consultant (often uninformed as to the staff's priority needs within the peculiar characteristics of a school's curriculum) makes a one-shot effort soon lost in the maze of daily routine.

In short, in-service education in the past has been:

- fragmented and without integrated activities developed upon assessed priority needs, and
- insignificant and without a marked impact upon teachers and programs.

Most people in education seem to agree that traditional in-service courses provided by colleges and universities or developed solely by school administrators have a negligible effect on teachers' classroom lives. Fortunately, the educational community as a whole is coming gradually to realize that teachers must be involved in planning and implementing their own growth programs. Teacher college faculty and administrators often have no problem accepting this theoretically but, lacking a total commitment to the teacher in the classroom, they have seldom occasioned implementation of such programs. We also must not overlook the fact that giving teachers adequate time and resources to pursue their professional growth costs money, and shifts responsibility to the individual and collective teacher and away from various other groups. These consequences must be accepted by all parties if there is to be a serious effort to institute improvement in programs of continuing teacher education.

The American Federation of Teachers believes that the public school system carries the responsibility for the material support of in-service education. A parallel can be drawn from private industry. Employees are not expected to finance their own training. Instead, they learn to function in their positions at "company expense" and on "company time." This is true for executive trainees, too. Teachers deserve no less.

As we indicated above, there are some favorable signs on the horizon. Staff development, long the stepchild of American education, has started to show signs of coming to life. In-service programs are beginning to change, largely because of organized teachers insisting on taking an active part in developing programs that have some significant impact on their classroom levels. (Our stress is on organized teachers since this is the most representative and most democratic approach to identifying teacher leadership.) In the past, as we and many others have indicated, in-service classes were "given" by instructors who had forgotten the sounds and sights of a public school. But now a number of school districts are establishing separate offices for staff development and are beginning to plan cooperatively with colleges and universities and local teachers' unions. This is as it should be. In some places, school districts and unions are becoming partners for the first time in developing in-service programs in which teachers play a major role in determining the scope and content. In some places, teachers are also involved in evaluating such programs and in determining criteria for credit. There also is activity in this area at the state department level. For example, new regulations in Pennsylvania make it possible for a teacher to attain permanent certification entirely through in-service courses in the district without attending a single formal graduate class.

It is our hope, however, that a happy medium can be reached, for we believe that colleges and universities have a tremendous contribution to make in the continuing education of teachers, particularly in areas devoted to closing the gap between (a) research and practice and (b) theory and practice. We recognize and accept the fact that the foundations of education are as important as everyday instructional methods and techniques. For too long, in-service education has centered on "how to" rather than "why to." We realize that some teachers often want nothing more; however, we reject the notion that in-service education should be devoted solely to practicums in techniques. As a matter of fact, we believe that in-service teachers are more appropriate students of educational philosophy than are teachers at the pre-service training level. The reasons are obvious: basic theory means little if it precedes practical operation.

An even more welcome sign is the fact that some districts are beginning to recognize that it is in their own best interest to provide time, money, and support for staff development. Some districts now provide local funds for in-service training and are looking for state and federal sources for additional money. Others reimburse teachers for tuition, and some now hire substitutes to make in-service programs possible. Some school boards are coming to realize that productive changes are best effected by providing for in-service education during the course of the regular working day, something which the AFT has long supported.

Several years ago, in exploring the problems and potentials of in-service education, the AFT presented a number of specific suggestions and guidelines which, on review, are as timely as before. We believe that in-service education should have the following characteristics:

(1) Opportunities for both the inexperienced and experienced teacher, the professional and paraprofessional, the specialist and the generalist. The starting points and needs of each would be respected.

(2) Opportunities to help teachers proceed toward carefully selected, highly important goals, such as learning to teach inductively or learning group-process skills useful in working cooperatively with children.

(3) Opportunities for teachers to become aware of development in fields other than their own, e.g., in government, the humanities, or the natural sciences, as the need demands.

(4) A variety of group approaches found useful in adult education--various kinds of formal and informal courses,

workshops, seminars, group discussions, role playing, lectures, demonstrations, field trips, investigations, projects, and the like.

(5) High-level teaching by competent instructors who have recent or current classroom experience and who would use the most current and most appropriate instructional methods.

(6) Groups of teachers with common needs cutting across building-unit lines would be brought together in joint endeavors, as the need demands.

We believe that, in-service education should be neither solely field-based nor solely university-based. Instead, teacher centers should be created which are jointly administered and operated. There simply is too much to learn--both in the theory of education and practice of teaching--to expect that one group should be responsible for everything. Planning for the in-service education of teachers is the responsibility of school districts, colleges and universities, and teacher organizations, working hand-in-hand to effect needed change.

We have indicated that while in-service education leaves much to be desired, it is showing signs of improvement. But much remains to be done before it can be an accepted part of a school system's life. In-service teacher education should be supported financially to the same degree as any other essential school program. When it is, we will begin to meet the needs recognized in such vital educational thrusts as early childhood education, bilingual education, special education, and adult education.

In summary, in-service education must begin to be thoroughly integrated into the needs of schools and teachers and, as we indicated, organizations of teachers should be involved in all planning operations. In the future, teacher centers, without a doubt, will be the home of in-service education and, without a doubt, they will be professionally controlled.

The voice of teachers should certainly be more dominant than it has been in the past for, after all, in-service education is primarily intended as the means of continouous professional growth for teachers. However, for teachers to have more responsibility in this area does not mean that higher education will be cut out of the picture. We need to work toward a mutually beneficial collaboration.

THE NEA'S VIEWS ON IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

National Education Association Staff
David Darland and Robert Luke, Editors

The primary purpose of in-service education is to create a system for self-improvement and thus better equip teachers to serve the basic purpose of education. The substance of in-service training should focus on the teaching of students and on the school as a social system. The genesis of action should be the actual practice of teaching. The goal should be the improvement of professional practice in the setting of the school.

Ironically, most graduate courses and many school district in-service efforts do not deal with the improvement of teaching. They often do not focus on the specifics of a teacher's job, nor do they concentrate on application of what is learned to the real experiences of teachers. Teacher needs too often go unassessed, and teachers are seldom involved in deciding what they will study.

Most programs are directed at the teacher as an individual practitioner. The implicit expectation is that teachers will study together but that they practice what they learn independently. Very few in-service education programs take place in the classroom with the students present, a situation which would make possible a laboratory-type approach to training. Many in-service programs are directed at the study of a new program, innovation, or current fad, and are often not concerned with how such an intervention helps or hinders curriculum development and teaching.

The NEA believes that in-service staff development must be:

- perceived as an essential and continuous function of a career in teaching and an extension of pre-service preparation.

- established largely on the basis of teacher needs as identified by teachers.

- planned, governed, and evaluated by teachers and others directly related to the schooling enterprise.
- integrated into each teacher's professional assignment through negotiated contracts.
- financed by public funds.

Discussion of each assertion above follows.

CONTINUING EDUCATION

If teaching is to be professionalized, in-service education is essential. Knowledge, as Whitehead said, "keeps like fish." To maintain competence in any teaching field or area today requires constant effort, because knowledge is created at an enormous rate. For example, what seemed to be generally predictable about the values, expectations, and educational needs of children and youth in the 1950's was distinctly different in the 1960's and different still in the 1970's. New voices have been added to those which traditionally shaped both the philosophy and the methodology of teaching. However, for new knowledge to be utilized by practitioners requires that opportunities be provided for new skills and abilities to be learned on the job. The problem is further complicated by the fact that teachers have to deal with a backlog of unassimilated knowledge. Efforts to conceptualize and provide adequate in-service learning opportunities are late in coming.

Assumptions about formal schooling and the respective role of teachers are often either obsolete or untrue. What is expected of schools and teachers can best be described by the word "fickle." The study of the school as a social institution and its role in society has hardly been touched.

Demands upon teachers are increasing at the rate of a geometric progression. However, we have not acted to make job-related staff development an essential function of a career in teaching. Indeed, in-service has been largely a stepchild of teacher education. Until very recently little relationship was perceived between initial and in-service education for teachers, and even now the relationship is vague and unclear.

Preparation for a profession should be university and college-based but field-oriented. Pre-service and in-service training should proceed along a continuum. The focus of preparation should move gradually from college-based to field-based activities through some form of orientation--possibly an internship. In-service should be professionally based and designed to meet actual and anticipated needs.

DESIGNED BY TEACHERS

Teachers seldom perceive available in-service opportunities as meeting the needs they identify. Priority attention is often directed exclusively toward meeting the needs of the school system as it tries to carry out its institutional obligations, albeit these needs are frequently imposed on it by forces outside the community. As one teacher (1) put it:

> In recent years the Florida legislature has mandated Career Education, Consumer Education, Remedial Reading, Environmental Education, Health Education, Spanish, Elementary Counselors, and Early Childhood. Too often, these programs require in-service for recertification... In-service in use of aides is required for recertification in Early Childhood.
>
> The federally funded programs completely frustrate and exhaust us. The proposals are written by professional proposal writers or university professors and we carry them out. In our elementary school, some children receive remediation one-half hour a day in Math and Reading. One-half hour PE and Music. That child is away from the classroom two hours. Classrooms resemble a busy air terminal...
>
> Where do we go from here?

To identify needs it is essential that opportunities be provided for teachers to interact with other teachers. The school climate should encourage teachers to identify the manners in which they learn most effectively. Time and structure are required if needs are to be identified.

At a workshop on teacher-centered professional development in Iowa, teachers listed experiences that they felt had made them a better teacher or more competent professional.(2) Some of the fifty-four activities named were:

(a) A summer workshop in NTL training
(b) Recreational travel
(c) Values clarification training
(d) Verbal skills training for professional negotiations
(e) Rap sessions with other teachers
(f) Participating as a teacher consultant

(g) Teaching academic classes (from a vocational teacher)
(h) Serving as a leader of specific skill workshops
(i) Working with first-year teachers
(j) Working with student teachers
(k) Observing another teacher work with students
(l) Mini-grant team participation
(m) Science fair project sponsor
(n) Leadership training course
(o) Teaching academically talented students
(p) Failure experience followed by re-evaluation.

In analyzing the various experiences, several general characteristics of the training experiences evolved. They included:

(1) An informal program structure
(2) A voluntary activity
(3) A high level of personal interaction
(4) A nonacademic format
(5) Group rather than leader orientation
(6) Informal behavior patterns between participants and leaders
(7) A live-in situation.

When participants were asked to brainstorm ideas of how they would like to be involved in a staff development process, forty to fifty ideas were generated, including use of teacher aides, computerized programs, visitations, released time, setting up learning stations, audiovisual taping within the classroom, a preview center for new materials, use of computers, development of retrieval systems for information, field trip activities, traveling ecology tours, sharing workshops, exchange of evaluation findings, released time to do research, exchange teaching, and exchanging roles of counselors, teachers, etc.

In a recent in-service education survey undertaken by the NEA, a national sample of 1,200 teachers indicated the area of greatest need was for training in basic teaching strategies across content areas. Of the five major areas listed--(1) the ways students learn; (2) teaching content areas; (3) teaching skills; (4) organizational patterns; and (5) instructional materials--the first was of greatest interest with a measure of 80.* This finding was further supported by the response to one of the sub-items under teaching skills, entitled "Motivating Students," which had a measure of 86.

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* This assessment study used a comparison technique based upon a scale from 0 to 100 with a difference of 5 significance.

Teaching skills was the only other of the five major areas in which respondents expressed consistent interest. Eight sub-items were included: classroom management, diagnosing weaknesses and prescribing instruction, structuring learning experiences, values clarification, students teaching students, teacher-student interaction, evaluating student learning, and motivating students. Of these only the sub-item "students teaching students," received a measure of interest below 62. According to the study, teachers do not see subject matter as a general problem. Only one of eight listed teaching content areas as being of high interest. Reading had a measure of 71, mathematics 58, and language 57. These were the only other subject fields with an interest measure above 50.

The NEA study is reinforced by the RAND(3) study of federal programs, which found that innovative programs were most likely to be assimilated when they included "an emphasis on training" and "when teacher training focused on practical classroom issues."

However, teachers do recognize the need for many kinds of in-service education activities required to meet mandated program specifications, install a new curriculum, introduce an innovation in teaching style, try out a new grading system, upgrade the skills of parent conferencing, or undertake any other system-wide or grade level-wide institutional program. Theoretical knowledge, research-based findings, and academic wisdom are all useful for teachers. Teachers require--for both professional and personal reasons--a full range of and continuing educational opportunities.

Needs for in-service education exist on a number of levels. A rich and wide variety of learning activities and resources are required to meet them. To overemphasize one set of needs or to slight another is to risk that only part of the school and part of the staff stay current and that only part of the potential for growth is utilized.

PLANNED, GOVERNED, AND EVALUATED LARGELY BY TEACHERS

Conceptual designs are beginning to evolve which do recognize the importance of teachers in planning, governing, and evaluating their own in-service. However, the organized teaching profession must act to insure that teachers have the opportunity to continue their own job-related learning activities.

The paternalistic pattern of delivering in-service to teachers is obsolete. Professionals simply do not willingly allow someone else to exclusively plan, control, and evaluate their self-improvement programs. Teachers are asking for help--realistic help, that is--the kind that helps them teach better

American teachers are the only general practitioners in any profession who are constantly being directly impinged upon by "experts" without their prior consent. Imposition of programs upon teachers thwarts intrinsic motivation and inhibits education. Indeed, many teachers have come to look upon innovation as imposition.

An analysis of current state statutes reveals that existing legislation depicts in-service education as largely traditional. In-service is often perceived as released time for institutes, pre-school workshops, conferences, etc. Only a very few states encourage experimentation to improve instruction. Special programs of in-service are included in several states on such topics as the handicapped, drug abuse, alcohol education, educational resources, and specific subject matter areas. In fact, all states but one have some statutes dealing with in service education for teachers. In aggregate, these statutes constitute a hodgepodge of ineffective good intentions. They presume to solve social and educational problems by prescription and imposition. The organized teaching profession as an entity is largely ignored. Little wonder then that teachers are alienated by what is called in-service.

Currently the teacher center is in. Several states have permissive or prescriptive legislation for such centers. The function of these centers varies. However, they are mostly old wine in new bottles; that is, the structure is changed but not the function, since the same old forces generally plan and govern the centers. Any improvement in in-service will necessarily have to be based upon perceiving structure and function as reciprocally related. Teachers are central in both.

ESTABLISHED BY NEGOTIATED CONTRACTS

Professional assignments for teachers must include in-service opportunities. The idea of released time must give way to a concept of integrating in-service into school schedules. Accordingly such opportunities should be guaranteed through negotiated contracts and legislation. Such practice should become routine and become a criterion for accreditation of schools.

FINANCED BY PUBLIC FUNDS

Job-related in-service programs should be publicly financed. Such programs are essential and are in the public interest. Programs of teacher education beyond initial preparation urgently need legislative frameworks within which educators can work to establish policies for organization, design, and support for in-service education. In other words, in-service education needs mechanisms, design, and support systems that will make for an ongoing program--one that cannot be curtailed by temporary economic recessions or the fortuitous actions of a few overzealous legislators.

Federal government programs are often limited by appropriations procedures to one year of assured funding, making subsequent years tentative and introducing the possibility that a change of mood in Congress can seriously curtail or kill a program. Witness the plight of the National Science Foundation's funding for curriculum development. There is, then, too little assured continuity for programs in education.

Federal legislation is administered by centralized agencies which often interpret legislation by preparing and executing guidelines. Often agency officialdom appears to be more concerned with pleasing a powerful individual in the federal congress than with involving those people required for the success of a program. Accordingly, the discretionary opportunity for interpreting federal legislation is extremely narrow and lacking in adequate input from those responsible for results at the institutional and individual levels.

The economic power of the federal government is pervasive. This power can be used either to stimulate or stifle the decision-making and performance abilities of state and local institutions. Institutions are people--accordingly, federal presence affects every teacher in every classroom.

Federal legislation which provides carte blanche funds to states or institutions without any established limits for the use of such funds is irresponsible. However, the other extreme of overprescriptive legislation is equally, if not more, irresponsible.

The defining of roles for federal and state governments in the area of in-service education needssubstantial attention. In a nation where education decisions are largely a state responsibility, the federal effort should be mainly to facilitate and support--not to prescribe. The state responsibility on the other hand, must be to establish a system and organization for in-service education that will make local decision-making possible and essential. Adequate checks and balances must, of course, be provided. But most of the action on in-service education will be at the local level and both federal support and state support and sanction are required to enable local efforts.

As the teaching profession works toward the attainment of legislative goals it must consider the inherent dangers as well as the obvious needs. It must use its influence to reduce the one and help secure the resources to meet the other.

THE FUTURE

In-service education in the future will be quite different from what it is today. The impact of in-service education directed at school program improvement will bring a different focus. In-service education, as typically developed by college personnel in devising courses and workshops for teachers, will give way to dealing with the real problems of teachers in schools. Arbitrary methods of deciding what is good for teachers will give way to cooperative efforts by teachers and school administrators, utilizing college personnel as resources in seeking improvement of instruction. The test of adequacy for any program of in-service education will be the degree to which study and training improve teaching and learning. Research will come to have a new theoretical base.

The process in carrying out new elements of in-service teacher education may become as important as the substance of the problem. New approaches will insure a better grasp of problem identification and should institutionalize improvement. When policies and procedures become a part of negotiated contracts between teacher associations and school districts they indeed become institutionalized.

A local program cannot survive if decisions and frameworks at the state level are not created that legitimize in-service education (staff development) as a part of local school operation. State board deliberations and legislative action are necessary.

The public will and should have its appropriate role. This is partially provided for by the negotiation process in which the public is represented through the board of education. The state board of education represents the people as do the legislators, but effective ways of involving a broader base of citizen participation in educational decisions are still largely unknown.

In-service education will become an integral part of professional practice. Teachers and other personnel in such a system will have the time to develop curriculum, to devise teaching strategies, and to evaluate outcomes as a part of their professional assignment. In one sense, the school will become a teaching laboratory. Very little will be taken for granted because it was done a particular way the previous week or year. It will be recognized that students and society change constantly and that personnel operating the school program must respond constantly to such changes. The role of the teacher, then, becomes one of continuously responding to new circumstances that must be handled by new planning and replanning, a constant examination of procedures and strategies, and increasing efforts to individualize program and instruction for each student.

Learning is at least as complicated as attention to physical health. Yet professional personnel attending to health care generally deal with patients on a one-to-one basis. As growth and learning become more highly prized by parents, it seems inevitable that individual programs for learning will be the mode.

Teaching the individual will require in-service education on a continuous basis even if just to keep abreast of developing knowledge. When the focus becomes fostering the development of unique individuals, in-service education will become even more important.

However, learning in groups, the essential socialization of students in schools, and attention afforded to the school as a social system will become even more important. Some basic principles and values will remain constant--or fairly constant. No one has yet orchestrated schools and learning programs in ways that produce the quality education students in this affluent nation need and deserve. In fact, most schools operate closer to a survival or subsistence level than they do to the higher levels of intellectual or social life. Part of the problem is inadequate resources in people and money for education, but much of it is also poor organization and ineffective use of the personnel and money presently being expended. Solution is partially a matter of assigning resources to appropriate national priorities.

If present schooling efforts can be modified, granted increased resources, so that teaching and classes become more than the delivery of knowledge and skills to students, schooling could be drastically improved. Making in-service education an integral part of schooling is an essential step.

RESEARCH NEEDED

Developing and acquiring the knowledge essential to bridging the gap between what is and what should be is a priority task for research and development scholars. The following are among the most critical in-service teacher education needs which have research implications.

THE NATURE OF TEACHING: A well-established knowledge base for teaching is lacking. Traditional, single variable, quantitative and statistical research has proven inadequate to the task, but, like all traditions, these methodologies are tenacious and quite consuming of resources. Research designed to develop new hypotheses through involvement of teachers in the teaching situation should be given priority. Experienced teachers would be responsive to such efforts, since such studies would integrate into a single context of research, development, and knowledge utilization.

THE DEFINITION OF THE TEACHER ROLE: The role of the teacher is often said to be the most important aspect of the teaching-learning situation. What should be the nature of this role? What is the definition of a teacher? When a student tutors another, is this teaching? Is the role of the teacher constantly changing? If so, what are the implications of such change?

THE PROBLEMS OF TEACHERS: What shall be the priority given to research which assists with the solution of teaching problems as perceived by teachers? Can research be designed through the involvement of practicing teachers which will be utilitarian? What do teachers have to say to researchers?

THE NATURE OF CAREER TRAINING: What should be the relationship between pre-service preparation and in-service education of teachers? How should these relationships be established? How can in-service education be integrated into teaching as an imperative dimension of all teaching assignments?

THE GOVERNANCE OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: What is the most effective way to govern in-service education? Who should control such education? How should programs be evaluated? What should be the role of parents? Students? Laymen in general?

THE NATURE OF SUCCESS: There are examples of successful in-service education programs for teachers. What are the characteristics of such programs?

Can such programs be transferred to other sites? If so, how?

THE USE OF WHAT EXISTS: What are the most effective ways to analyze, synthesize, and interpret for teachers relevant research knowledge already available? How can we develop a national system for utilizing knowledge already available? Should part of this system be directed toward validating the practical usefulness of research efforts?

THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLING: How is organization related to schooling? What are the relationships between organization of schooling and teaching? What should be the nature of this relationship? What would be optimum educational schedules and calendars?

THE IMPACT OF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING: What are the effects of collective bargaining on teaching and learning? What are the effects of collective bargaining on staff development for teachers? What are new variations in collective bargaining that hold promise?

THE IMPACT OF ACCOUNTABILITY: What have been the effects of state accountability programs on teaching? What is an appropriate accountability concept for teaching and learning?

THE RELATIONSHIP OF IN-SERVICE AND CERTIFICATION: What should be the relationship between in-service and certification? How should such a relationship be developed? How should the certification process be governed?

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS: What types of in-service education have the greatest potential for improving teacher effectiveness? What is the relationship between in-service education and mental health of teachers? Should there be a national system of sabbatical leaves?

THE FINANCE OF INSERVICE EDUCATION: How should in-service education be financed? What should be the respective roles of the federal, state, and local government?

THE NATIONAL PRIORITIES: What should be the role of the federal government for sustaining adequate professional development programs for teachers? In turn, what role should states assume? Should a conceptual design for a system for in-service be developed? How can parameters be established to insure appropriate use of funding for local decision-making without being prescriptive?

THE EXCHANGE OF POSITIONS: Is it feasible to establish a national teacher exchange system whereby teachers can acquire new experiences in new places? How would such an exchange affect education at large?

CONCLUSION

An effective system of job-related in-service education for teachers is prerequisite to improvement in schooling for children. Such effective systems will require a planned sequence of events:

(1) Conceptual system designs must be created, tested, and evaluated through action research programs.

(2) Government at all three levels should provide the incentives for creating such systems.

(3) Systems of in-service teacher education should be built upon valid psychological and institutional foundations. Improvement must be based upon understanding that effective teaching requires teachers who feel fundamentally adequate, partially because they have the opportunity and time for continuous experiences of self-fulfillment.

Adequately designed and effective in-service teacher education offers the prognosis of improved schooling for children. The public interest is served by in-service education for teachers.

REFERENCE NOTES

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APPENDIX A

TEACHER CORPS RECRUITMENT AND TECHNICAL RESOURCE CENTERS

Western RTR Center
William C. Hill, Director
University of Southern California
311 South Spring
Los Angeles, California 90015
(213) 625-7204

Midwestern RTR Center
Floyd T. Waterman, Director
University of Nebraska
Center for Urban Education
3805 North 16th Street
Omaha, Nebraska 68110
(402) 554-2773

Great Lakes RTR Center
Barbara A. Vance, Director
Wayne State University
2978 W. Grand Boulevard, 2nd Floor
Detroit, Michigan 48202
(313) 577-1618

Northeastern RTR Center
Donald W. Parker, Director
Howard University
1411 K Street, N.W., Suite 420
Washington, D. C. 20005
(202) 737-7868

Southeastern RTR Center
Michael G. Baker, Director
University of Georgia
337 South Milledge Avenue, Room 209
(404) 542-5862

Chief of Center Operations:

Velma Robinson
Teacher Corps
U.S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D. C. 20202
(202) 245-8275

APPENDIX B

PROJECT CONSULTANT INTERVIEWERS

Ursula Anderson	Midwestern RTR Center
Roxie Bagley	Western RTR Center
Michael Baker	Southeastern RTR Center
Wilbert Bledsoe	Great Lakes RTR Center
James Boyer	Kansas State University
Elsa Brizzi	University of Southern California
Carol Bryant	Wayne County Junior College, Detroit
Roger Bryant	Southeastern RTR Center
Ronald Butler	Carroll County, Georgia School System
Francine Clemons	Washington, D. C. Public Schools
Paul Collins	New York Teacher Corps Network
Suzie Collins	Pasadena Unified School District
Carol Coy	Northeastern RTR Center
Joyce Ellis	Boston Indian Council
Floyd Falany	Reinhart College
Paul Fisher	University of Southern California
Eugene George	University of South Carolina
Eileen Goins	University of Seattle
Turner Goodlow	Houston Independent School District
John Green	University of South Alabama
Marilyn Harper	Stanford University
Edith Harrison	Portland COP Project
William C. Hill	Western RTR Center
Willie Hodge	University of Toledo
Janet Hunter	Compton Unified School District
Andrew Johnson	Wayne State University
Bruce Joyce	Stanford University
Mary Kelley	Consultant, Worcester, Mass.
Hal Knight	West Virginia Institute
Margaret Koch	Pasadena Unified School District

Reba Lassiter	Pasadena Unified School District
Billie Lipsey	Detroit Public Schools
Mary Logan	Federal City College
Patricia Matthews	Northeastern RTR Center
Donald Mims	Los Angeles City Schools
Barbara Ogletree	Southeastern RTR Center
Roger Pankratz	Western Kentucky University
Donald Parker	Northeastern RTR Center
Lucy Peck	Hofstra University
Lorenzo Reid	Consultant, Washington, D. C.
Terry Rice	Stanford University
Joseph Romo	Western RTR Center
Richard Stroup	Costa Mesa School District
Beulah Tumpkin	Consultant, Detroit
Rupert Trujillo	University of New Mexico
Barbara Vance	Great Lakes RTR Center
Susan Vernand	Pasadena Unified School District
Floyd Waterman	Midwestern RTR Center
Doris Wilson	Southeastern RTR Center
James Wilson	Wayne State University
Roger Wilson	Northern Arizona University